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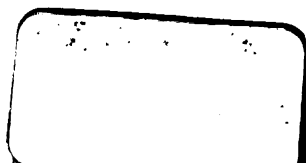
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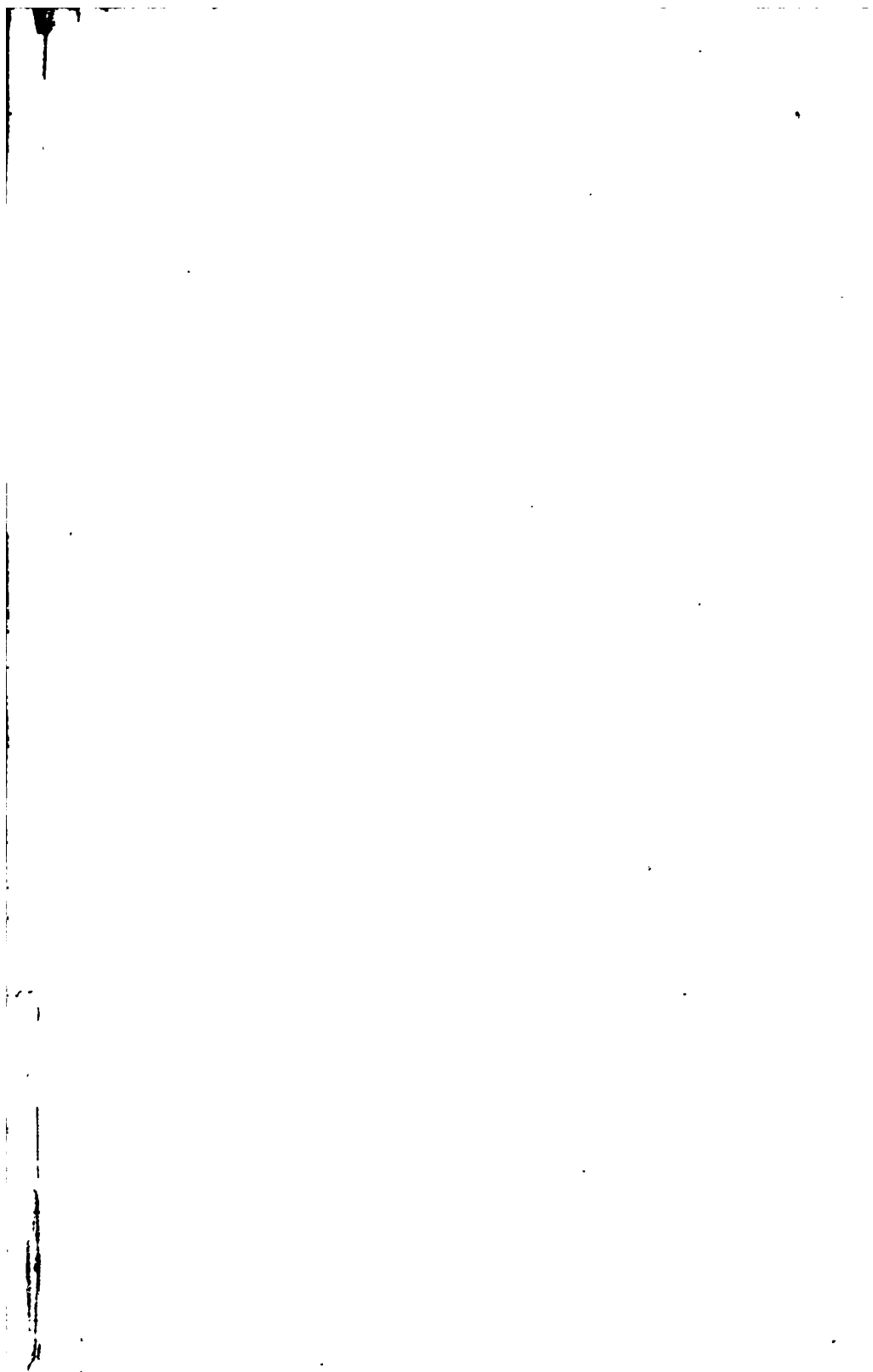
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THE
ANCIENT AND MODERN HISTORY
OF THE
MARITIME PORTS OF IRELAND.

BY ANTHONY MARMION.

WHEN A NATION, LONG OPPRESSED BY PENAL LAWS AND BAD GOVERNMENT, HAS BEEN SYSTEMATICALLY IMPOVERISHED, LIKE IRELAND, IT IS NOT TO BE EXPECTED THAT PROSPERITY AND INDEPENDENCE CAN BE EASILY OR SUDDENLY ACQUIRED. NATIONS, LIKE MEN, REQUIRE TIME AND VIGOROUS EXERTION TO MATURE THEIR STRENGTH. AN EXTENSION OF COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES IN IRELAND, AND THE CONSEQUENT REMUNERATIVE EMPLOYMENT OF ITS POPULATION, ARE WELL CALCULATED TO ACHIEVE THESE OBJECTS, AND PLACE IT IN THAT ELEVATED RANK OF NATIONS, TO WHICH IT IS SO EMINENTLY ENTITLED FROM ITS COMMANDING POSITION ON THE GLOBE AND ITS GREAT NATURAL RESOURCES.

THE AUTHOR.

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INTRODUCTION.

AS NATURAL HISTORY takes precedence of those events in which man has acted so prominent a part, no matter how ancient the date or how important the results have been, it may not be uninteresting, in the first instance, to give some idea of the geographical situation and advantages of that country to which this work is especially devoted. IRELAND is one of the largest, and the most westerly island in Europe ; it is delightfully situated on the bosom of the Atlantic Ocean, "an emerald set in the ring of the sea," and lies between $51^{\circ} 12'$ and $55^{\circ} 20'$ north latitude, and $5^{\circ} 20'$ and $10^{\circ} 30'$ west longitude. It is separated from Great Britain on the east and north-east by St. George's Channel and the Irish Sea ; and on the west and south-west its commodious harbours stretch out wide into the Atlantic, as if to invite the New world, which lies directly opposite, to consummate an alliance with the Old. From Mizen-head in the south to Fairhead in the north it is 241 Irish or 306 statute miles in length, and its greatest breadth is about 185 miles. Its surface contains 20,808,271 statute acres : of which 630,825 are under water, 374,482 covered with plantations ; 13,464,300 are cultivated ; 42,929 under houses in towns ; and 6,295,735 are waste. The longest day in the northern extremity is 17 hours and 12 minutes. and in the southern 16 hours and 25 minutes. Although situated in so high a degree of north latitude, the air is mild and agreeable, caused in some degree, no doubt, by its lying in the path of the Gulf Stream, or those warm ocean currents that beat and circulate around its shores ; still the climate is more variable than in any other country in Europe, the natural consequence of the island being exposed to the prevailing winds from the continent of America, which imbibe the humid yet genial atmosphere of

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AS NATURAL HISTORY takes precedence of those events in which man has acted so prominent a part, no matter how ancient the date or how important the results have been, it may not be uninteresting, in the first instance, to give some idea of the geographical situation and advantages of that country to which this work is especially devoted. IRELAND is one of the largest, and the most westerly island in Europe ; it is delightfully situated on the bosom of the Atlantic Ocean, "an emerald set in the ring of the sea," and lies between $51^{\circ} 12'$ and $55^{\circ} 20'$ north latitude, and $5^{\circ} 20'$ and $10^{\circ} 30'$ west longitude. It is separated from Great Britain on the east and north-east by St. George's Channel and the Irish Sea ; and on the west and south-west its commodious harbours stretch out wide into the Atlantic, as if to invite the New world, which lies directly opposite, to consummate an alliance with the Old. From Mizen-head in the south to Fairhead in the north it is 241 Irish or 306 statute miles in length, and its greatest breadth is about 185 miles. Its surface contains 20,808,271 statute acres : of which 630,825 are under water, 374,482 covered with plantations ; 13,464,300 are cultivated ; 42,929 under houses in towns ; and 6,295,735 are waste. The longest day in the northern extremity is 17 hours and 12 minutes. and in the southern 16 hours and 25 minutes. Although situated in so high a degree of north latitude, the air is mild and agreeable, caused in some degree, no doubt, by its lying in the path of the Gulf Stream, or those warm ocean currents that beat and circulate around its shores ; still the climate is more variable than in any other country in Europe, the natural consequence of the island being exposed to the prevailing winds from the continent of America, which imbibe the humid yet genial atmosphere of

the vast Atlantic, unbroken in their course by the interposition of any other land. Notwithstanding, diseases incidental to a moist climate are seldom felt by the natives; and in some of the southern localities the air is esteemed more conducive to health than in those favoured spots recommended to invalids by the faculty in France and Italy. The number of lakes and rivers with which the country is beautifully diversified may also contribute to that salubrity and freshness of the air which not only invigorates the physical but also the mental faculties, producing that lively and cheerful disposition for which the Irish are so much esteemed. They may also be instrumental in maintaining that perennial spring or unfading verdure over the face of the country from which it has not been inappropriately styled "The Green Isle."

The most considerable of the lakes are Lough Neagh, one of the largest in Europe, comprising in extent 98,255 acres, its greatest depth in the centre being 45 feet; Lough Erne, spangled with its innumerable islands; Lough Foyle and Lough Swilly, in Ulster; Lough Corrib, Lough Mask, Lough Con, Lough Ree, and Lough Allen, in Connaught; Lough Ogram, Lough Culan, Lough Carra, Lough Lene, and Lough Derg, in Munster; Lough Ennel, Lough Hoyle, and Lough Derreverragh, in Leinster. The petrifying quality of the waters of Lough Neagh is one of those natural phenomena which gives ample exercise to the reflection and speculation of the experimental philosopher. Wood deposited for a certain period in this lake becomes stone by the total change of its internal configuration. Circumstances connected with this lake would lead to the conclusion that it had its origin in a volcanic irruption, but whether it occurred in the time of Partholanus, or in the sixth century, according to the Earl of Bristol, Bishop of Derry, who states, that in a monastery on the continent a manuscript exists giving an account of a fearful earthquake which then threw up the rock of Toome, and impeded the course of several rivers, which uniting, formed both Lough Neagh and Lough Erne. There is also a legend connected with a holy well which overflowed its bounds in a mysterious manner, and inundated that tract of land which now forms the Lough. Towns,

palaces, and temples were swallowed up, and the subject is thus beautifully alluded to by Moore:—

“ On Lough Neagh’s banks as the fisherman strays,
When the cold clear eve’s declining,
He sees the round towers of other days
In the waves beneath him shining.”

Lough Lene (the name in the Irish language for the Lake of Learning), but now better known as the Lakes of Killarney, being distinguished by the upper, the middle or Torc Lake, and the lower, which is the most extensive; the three being connected by a narrow channel. They are situated in the county Kerry, and are commanded on the east and south by the mountains of Mangerton and Torc; on the west by that of Glenna (beautiful Glenna); and on the north the country is level, stretching towards the town of Killarney, which lies north-east. It is beyond the power of the artist’s pencil, or the poet’s imagination, to give even an idea of these charming lakes; they were celebrated ages ago for their romantic beauty and soft-bewitching scenery, and were styled the tenth wonder of Ireland. The surrounding mountains are covered from their apex to their base with oaks, yew trees, evergreens, and the arbutus, which, although only a shrub in other countries, becomes here a tree, and grows to the height of twenty feet. It bears leaves evergreen like those of the laurel, but towards the extremity they are purple; its flowers hang in clusters like grapes, are white and of an agreeable flavour. These present in their different stages of vegetation a delightful variety of colours, and form an amphitheatre which revives all the charms of spring in the depth of winter. The report of cascades falling from these mountains to mingle with the waters of the lake below are repeated by a thousand echoes, and contribute considerably to the charms of this delightful retreat.

The Giants Causeway, which is situated on the north coast of the island, is another curiosity which probably has no parallel in the works of nature or of art. Its form is nearly triangular, and extends from the foot of an adjacent mountain into the sea, 600 feet of which is discernible at low water. It consists of innumerable pentagonal, hexagonal, and heptagonal pillars, but

irregular, as there are few of them whose sides are of equal breadth. In thickness they are not more uniform, varying from 15 to 26 inches in diameter; they all touch by equal sides, and are so contiguous that it is difficult to perceive the jointures. Neither are they uniform in height, as some form a smooth and others an uneven surface. They consist of many unequal pieces, from 12 to 24 inches in length; these pieces are jointed into each other by concave and convex surfaces highly polished, as are all the sides of the pillars which come in contact. This colonnade is in some parts 32 and in others 36 feet above the level of the sea, but its foundation has never been ascertained. One of the pillars had been broken to the depth of eight feet in the earth, and its figure was found to be the same as above the surface. A difference of opinion has long existed among the learned as to whether this causeway is the work of nature or of art. Those who support the former view contend that, according to Euclid, a united and continued surface can only be formed by six equilateral triangles, four squares, and three hexagons, and that these rules of art are not observed in this causeway, which is composed of polygons of unequal sides, although they exactly adapt themselves to the opposite side of the adjoining pillars, which can only be attributed to the workings of nature directed by a superior intelligence. They also contend that the junction of the pieces which form the pillars cannot be the work of art, for in all other pillars, ancient or modern, the jointures are made by plain surfaces, and it cannot be conceived how the articulation of the stones which compose these pillars could have been effected without a number of utensils at present unknown to art. On the other hand, it has been supposed that the causeway had been formed by man, that the ancients possessed superior knowledge and ingenuity in many branches of art to which the moderns are strangers, and that it is not at all improbable that they were acquainted with such implements as enabled them to form these pillars in their present original and fantastic shapes. There are some also of opinion that the causeway at one time extended across the Channel even to the coast of Scotland, where, it is said, some traces of it are to be found. If such a continued

raised way ever did exist, it must have been antecedent to the Flood, and may have taken its name from the circumstance of there being then, according to the sixth book of Genesis, "Giants on the earth." But since the waters created by that great event have settled in their natural channels, it is very improbable that it could either be formed or exist in such a sea.

The principal rivers are the Shannon, the Suir, and its tributaries, the Nore and the Barrow, the Blackwater, the Lee, the Boyne, the Liffey, the Bann, and the Lagan. The Shannon is the most extensive river in the United Kingdom, having its source in Lough Allen, and passing through the centre of the kingdom disembogues itself into the Atlantic Ocean. The Suir is also a noble river. But these and the other rivers will be more fully described in the history of the respective parts where they form a junction with the sea.

The island abounds with lofty mountains, promontories, and capes. Of the mountains, the most considerable are—the Mac Gillicuddy Reeks, Mangerton, and the Galtees, in Munster; Slieve-gullion and the Mourne-range, on the north-east coast of Ulster; the Carlingford, Cooley, Slieve Bloeme, and the Wicklow Mountains, in Leinster; and Knock Patrick, in Connaught. Previous to the Ordnance Surveys Mangerton was considered the highest mountain in Kerry, but by these it has been ascertained that Carran-Tuel, one of the Reeks, is not only 717 feet higher, but that it is the loftiest mountain in Ireland, being 3410 feet above the level of the sea; while Slieve Donard, the largest of the Mourne-range, is only 2796 feet, being 614 feet less than Carran-Tuel, but 97 feet higher than Mangerton. The latter mountain, however, possesses attractions of a very peculiar character. On the summit is a lake, the depth of which is unfathomable. It is called in the Irish *Pouille Iferon*, the hole or opening to hell; but it is more generally known as the Devil's Punch-bowl. Its waters appear nearly as black as ink, caused, no doubt, by the peat soil and the shade of the perpendicular rocks that surround it. The water even in summer is intensely cold, and still it has never been known to freeze in winter. It is supplied from springs in the mountain, and when it overflows, which

often happens, it forms a cascade that is precipitated with great force into the lake below. The most important promontories are Missenhead, Sheepshead, and Crowhead, on the south coast; Brandonhead on the west; and Fairhead on the north: these are seen at an immense distance out to sea, and are good landmarks for vessels coming from the various points of the compass. Cape Clear, the Fasnet Rock, and the Blasket Islands are well calculated for similar purposes.

A great proportion of what is termed the waste land consists of marsh and bog, as well as mountain, which is, however, valuable in supplying a majority of the inhabitants with fuel, even in that part of the country where traces of coal in abundance have been discovered, but are left unexplored.

The soil is fertile in the extreme, producing all kinds of cereal and vegetable crops; but combined with the mild and humid atmosphere, and a lengthened spring, it is peculiarly adapted for the cultivation of flax, a product so necessary for the support of its extensive linen manufacture. The pasturage is considered the best in Europe for grazing purposes, and Irish beef is held in high estimation, and some few years ago the English war navy was exclusively supplied with it: the butter also that it produces, for quantity and quality, cannot be excelled. Ancient Bede calls it "a land teeming with milk and honey;" and that even in his time the vine was extensively cultivated in Ireland with success. This fertility was so esteemed throughout Europe in the seventh and eighth centuries, that Donatus, then Bishop of Fesula, near Florence, describes Ireland in such glowing terms that it must then have enjoyed superior advantages over all other countries. His composition is thus translated by Dr. Dunkin:—

" Far westward lies an isle of ancient fame,
By Nature blest, and Scotia is her name;
Enrolled in books, exhaustless is her store
Of veiny silver and of golden ore.
Her fruitful soil for ever teems with wealth,
With gems her waters, and her air with health;
Her verdant fields with milk and honey flow,
Her woolly fleeces vie with virgin snow;
Her waving furrows float with bearded corn,
And arms and arts her envied sons adorn.

No savage bear with lawless fury roves,
Nor ravenous lion, through her peaceful groves;
No poison there infects, no scaly snake
Creeps through the grass, nor frog annoys the lake:
An island worthy of its pious race,
In war triumphant, and unmatched in peace."

Frogs, it is said, were unknown in Ireland before the reign of William III. Nature has so ordained it, that the soil will not endure any venomous creature. It is true that snakes and lizards are partially found in Ireland, and that serpents will live in it, but they no longer retain their venomous properties, which appear inseparable from their nature in all other countries except the Island of Crete. This exemption from noxious reptiles is by some attributed to a blessing conferred by Moses on Goadhal Glas, the progenitor of Milesius, at the time he conducted the Israelites through the Red Sea, which was to descend to his posterity and the country they were destined to govern; but this is inadmissible, as Moses and Goadhal Glas were not cotemporaries. The popular opinion is, that Ireland obtained this privilege through the intercession of St. Patrick; but it is more than probable, that, from the nature of the climate or the soil, or both combined, the country was always free from poisonous reptiles, as St. Patrick never was in Crete, and yet that island is equally exempt from them. And long before the arrival of the Saint in Ireland, it was called the Sacred Isle, most likely from the circumstance of its enduring no venomous creature.

Having given, briefly, a sketch of the position and some of the natural advantages that the country enjoys, it will now be necessary to describe the physical and mental endowments of its inhabitants. The Irish, according to Lombard, are "large and well-built;" that they should be so is only natural, considering that those manly and vigorous exercises which tend to strengthen the nerves and invigorate the body were always practised by them. Hunting, horse and foot racing, wrestling, hurling, football, and other similar exercises, are still their accustomed amusements. The ancient military exercises of Tailton are attributed to Lugha Laimhfheada (the long-handed), one of the Danaan kings, who instituted them in honour of Tailte, the queen of Eochaidh, the last

monarch of the Belgæ, who, after his death, married a Danaan chief, and, from her many accomplishments, was selected to instruct the youthful prince Lugha. The games were proclaimed fifteen days before the 1st of August, the anniversary of her death, and continued fifteen days after. From them the month of August is still called *Lughnas*, or The commemoration of Lugha. These exercises were similar to those said to be introduced some centuries later by Romulus, at Rome, in honour of Mars, by the name of *Equiria*. They were adopted by the Milesians, and continued until after the Anglo-Norman invasion. Camden represents "the Irish as warlike, and remarkable for the just proportion of their limbs, and so pliant are their muscles, that their agility is incredible." Goode, an English priest, who studied in Ireland, and wrote in the sixth century, says, "the natives are distinguished by strength and agility of body; by a greatness and elevation of mind; possessed of acute genius; warlike, and prodigal of life; patient of labour, cold, and poverty; amorous in disposition; hospitable to strangers, constant in their attachment, implacable in their hatred; light of belief, greedy of glory; impatient of contempt and injury, and ardent in all their actions." "Of all men," says Stanihurst, "the Irish are the most hospitable in their nature, and the most beneficent; the most patient of labour; the most warlike; and are seldom found to bend under the weight of misfortune and distress." These are flattering testimonials, derived from sources not over-partial to the Irish; but the character of no people stood higher than theirs in general estimation previous to the subjugation of the country by the Anglo-Normans—and, considering the ages of oppression and political degradation that they have since endured, it is gratifying to find, that the present race have degenerated so little from the fame of their ancestors. Had they been fortunate enough to have preserved their independence, there is little doubt, that at the present day Ireland would have held an elevated rank in the scale of nations.

The learned of all ages have been in some degree divided in opinion as to when and by whom the island was first discovered, colonized, or inhabited; and to resolve this question, reference must be had to the earliest period of authentic history subsequent

to the Flood. In the tenth chapter of Genesis it is recorded, that Japhet, the son of Noah, had seven sons, Gomer, Magog, Madai, Javan, Tubal, Meshech, and Thyras. After the dispersion of Noah's sons and their progeny on the plain of Shinar, and that a confusion of languages was ordained, the posterity of Japhet not only peopled Europe, but a considerable part of Asia also. That of Gomer inhabited Gaul and Germany; the descendants of Magog occupied Scythia; Madai and Javan settled in Greece; Tubal possessed Spain; Meshech, Italy; and Thyras, Thrace. The children of Magog, the progenitor of the great Scythian nations, are not recorded by the sacred penman; but all those chronicles that are deemed most authentic,—as, the Book of Invasions, the White Book, and the Book of Conquests,—agree in giving him three sons, Baath, Jobhath, and Fathochta. Jobhath was the ancestor of the Bactrians, Parthians, and Amazons. Fathochta was the progenitor of Partholanus, and consequently of the Nemedians, Fírbolgs or Belgæ, and Tuatha de Danaans; but Baath was the father of Phœnius, the founder of the Milesian race.

From this it would appear, that the first settlers in Ireland, as well as those who succeeded them and contended for supremacy in the island, were all descended in a direct line from Magog; while Britain derived its aborigines from Gaul, and were, consequently, descended from Gomer. But these, and all the other circumstances of ancient history, either written or oral, sacred or profane, tending to give Ireland an early colonization from the East, or that represented its inhabitants as renowned for learning, piety or valour, through so many ages of its history—have been all denounced as mere chimera or monkish imposition by three sceptical pedagogues who have appeared within the last century, with pretensions to enlighten the world as to ancient history. *These great men in their own estimation* were—John Macpherson, a Scotch doctor of medicine, who published a work in 1757 “On the Origin, Antiquities, &c., of the Picts, British and Irish Scots;” James Macpherson, his relative, the author of “Ossian's Poems;” and Dr. Ledwich, a reverend LL.D., member of several learned societies, and author of “The Antiquities of Ireland,” as the title-page to that book denotes. The first of these, Dr. Macpherson, presuming on the circumstance

of North Britain being called Scotland even to the present day, contends that it was the far-famed Scotia of the ancients; and that as the other quarters of the globe were peopled from Asia, the Caledonians must have first settled in North Britain, and from thence colonized Ireland: although there is no portion of Irish history clearer than that several migrations of Irish Scots took place, who settled in Albany, from which the country obtained the name of Scotia Minor. These Albanian Scots, however, were invariably opposed by the Picts, until Feargus, in the reign of Murtoth, grandson to Niall the Great, united a portion of the Picts with the Albanian Scots under his sway, and Murtoth, to add greater solemnity to the coronation of Feargus, and to impress his new subjects with the conviction that the monarchy was to exist permanently in his family, sent him the famous Liagh Fail, or Stone of Destiny, on which he and his successors were subsequently crowned; and they extended from time to time the frontiers of their kingdom, until Kenneth, the son of Alpin, subverted the Pictish monarchy, and was styled King of the Albanies; that is, King of the Picts and Scots, which was subsequently changed to that of Scotland. The Liagh Fail, or Stone of Destiny, was originally brought into Ireland by the Damnonii, and fell into the hands of the Milesians after the conquest of the country. Their monarchs, from that time to its being sent to Feargus, comprising a term of fifteen hundred years, were invariably crowned on it, it being a received opinion, that a monarch of the Scythian race would govern wherever this stone was preserved. Hector Boetius notices this prophecy, which, translated from the Irish, runs thus:—

“ Unless the fixed decrees of fate give way,
The Scots shall govern and the sceptre sway,
Where'er this stone they find, and its dread sound obey.”

Previous to the Christian era, it is said that this stone emitted sounds resembling thunder when any of the line of Milesius was crowned on it; but the coming of the Messiah, which destroyed all pagan superstition, deprived it also of its soniferous virtues. These sounds, however, were, no doubt, caused by the arts of the Druids, and were, therefore, likely to be continued until the establishment of Christianity in the Island, when the Catholic hierarchy

superseded them in all their sacred functions. This stone was carefully preserved by the descendants of Feargus in the Abbey of Scone ; where, up to the time of Robert Bruce, the kings of Scotland were invariably crowned on it. Edward I., who had previously destroyed all records and monuments that were likely to inspire the Scots with the spirit of national independence, aware of the great veneration this stone was held in by them, had it removed to Westminster Abbey, and placed under the inauguration chair, where it still remains, and is known by the name of Jacob's Stone, from a supposition that it is part of the patriarch's pillar. Queen Victoria, and all the monarchs of England since the reign of Edward I., have been crowned over it. It is, of course, inconsistent with common sense to attribute any superstitious power to this stone; but popular opinion has powerful influence over the destinies of a nation. "The Romans were invincible as long as they believed their city to be eternal. Mahomet commenced by persuading a few Arabian enthusiasts that their swords were to subject the world to the Alcoran, and in less than a century the Turkish empire was established from the banks of the Euphrates to those of the Nile." It is also curious to observe, that after the transmission of this stone to Scotland the glories of the Milesian monarchy in Ireland gradually declined; and the Stuarts, after being deprived of it, held but an uncertain tenure of the Scottish crown until it was united with that of England in the person of James I. Swift must have had such casuists as the Macphersons and Dr. Ledwich in his mind's eye, when he wrote his inimitable verses on St. Patrick's Well in Trinity College becoming dry in 1726. He personifies the Saint thus—

"Thee, happy Island, Pallas call'd her own,
When haughty Britain was a land unknown;
From thee with pride the Caledonians trace
The glorious founder of their kingly race.
Thy martial sons, whom now they dare despise,
Did once their land subdue and civilise.
Their dress, their language, and the Scottish name,
Confess the soil from whence the victors came.
Well may they boast that ancient blood which runs
Within their veins, who are thy younger sons.

A conquest and a colony from thee,
 The mother country left her children free :
 From thee no mark of slavery they felt.
 Not so with thee the base invader dealt :
 Invited here to vengeful Murrrough's aid,
 Those whom they could not conquer they betrayed.
 Britain, by thee We fell, ungrateful Isle,
 Not by thy valour, but superior guile.
 Britain, confess with shame this land of mine,
 First taught thee human knowledge and divine ;
 My prelates and my students sent from hence,
 Made your sons converts both to God and sense.
 Not like the pastors of thy ravenous breed,
 Who come to fleece the flock and not to feed.
 Oh ! had I been apostle to the Swiss,
 Or hardy Scot, or any land but this,
 Combined in arms they had their foes defied,
 And kept their liberty, or bravely died.
 Thou still with tyrants in succession curst,
 The last invader trampling on the first,
 Nor fondly hope for some reverse of fate,
 Virtue herself would now return too late.
 Not half thy course of misery is run,
 The greatest evils yet are scarce begun :
 Soon shall thy sons, the time is just at hand,
 Be all made captive in their native land,
 When for the use of no Hibernian born
 Shall rise one blade of grass or ear of corn.
 Base mongrels ! to yon Isle your treasures bear,
 And waste in luxury thy harvest there ;
 For pride and ignorance a proverb grown,
 The jests of wits, and to the Court unknown—
 I scorn thee ! spurious and degenerate line,
 And from this hour my patronage resign."

James Macpherson, in his Introduction to the "History of Great Britain and Ireland," confirms the Doctor's presumptions, and attempts to palm on the public poems which he asserts were translated by him from the original of Ossian, a Caledonian bard, son to Fingal, King of Scotland, neither of whom ever had existence except in the fertile imagination of the author ; it being made manifest, that he surreptitiously extracted and translated the greater part of them from the poetical effusions of the ancient Irish bards, and with consummate audacity metamorphosed many of their Irish into Caledonian heroes. Dr. Ledwich, not content with supporting

the scepticism and cajolery of the Macphersons in rejecting the authenticity of ancient Irish history, actually devotes a whole chapter of his book on Irish Antiquities to show, that no such person as the Irish apostle Saint Patrick ever existed. These three worthies, being unable to produce any authority or data, attempt to support their speculative conjectures by a sophism, "that the authority of a thousand learned men is not equal to one solid argument; nor the belief of several great nations more, in many instances, than popular error." The Macphersons, who, to court the favour of English patronage, and fan the flame of English prejudice, with true Scotch sycophancy, concocted this futile and disingenuous attempt to undermine that ancient historical structure, that had stood the test of so many ages, and which the Irish, although goaded by domestic broils, and struggling beneath the pressure of foreign domination, had clung to, in the fulness of their pride, with undeviating attachment. While Dr. Ledwich, by his fulsome compliment to the Irish Catholics, terming them "a liberal and enlightened people, not likely much longer to be amused with fictitious legends, or pay *their adoration* to ideal personages, and that a scriptural, rational, and manly religion is alone calculated for their present improvement in science and manners," shows the cloven foot, and clearly demonstrates the object he had in view in his assiduity to prove St. Patrick an ideal character. The learned Dr. Milner, in his thirteenth letter of inquiry into the Antiquities of Ireland, extinguishes Dr. Ledwich and the whole brood of sceptics who adopted his opinion. "It is" said he, "for the sake of depriving the Irish Catholics of their original faith that Dr. Ledwich takes so much pains to deprive them of their great apostle who preached it to them. The fact, however is, the Irish Catholics are really too much 'enlightened' to become the dupes of such wretched artifices. After having baffled the machinations, and withstood the persecutions of almost three centuries in support of the religion once for all delivered to them by the Saints—namely, by St. Patrick and his disciples, in one of the golden ages of Christianity, they are not likely to make a compliment of it now to the cajolery, the declamation, or the sophistry of Dr. Ledwich."

But to return to those ancient learned authorities on which alone reliance can be placed for the first discovery of Ireland, as well as the name or names by which it was by them designated. It has been already stated, that Ireland owed its early colonization to the descendants of Magog, and that Phœnius, the son of Baath, was ancestor of the Milesians. He was called Farsa, or the Sage, from his having acquired a knowledge of the different languages that prevailed consequent on the confusion of tongues that originated at Babel. He selected for his territory that country situated on the east coast of the Mediterranean, which derived its name from him, and was called Phœnicia. The Phœnicians, as well as the descendants of Fothochta, who had settled in the maritime parts of Greece, and along the African coasts of the Mediterranean, early devoted themselves to seafaring purposes. The form and construction of the ark which had so signally saved their progenitors must have made a strong impression on their retentive faculties, and have taught them the utility of naval structures. But if they had not the recollection of the ark as a model, the buoyancy of timber would have convinced them of the facility of removing from one place to another by water, and the doubling of capes and headlands required but little experience. It is recorded, that when new countries were discovered, even at the earliest period, the inhabitants on the coasts used wicker baskets covered with hides, in which they rode in the most tempestuous seas. Those, therefore, who contend that Ireland could not have been peopled at so early a period of history, from regions so remote, and with means so inadequate for so long a voyage by sea, and that, consequently, it must have received its primeval inhabitants from Gaul, or the more contiguous shores of Britain,—do not reflect, that the transmigration of man from one country to another by land was more difficult and dangerous than by water. Impenetrable woods, precarious subsistence, savage beasts, and still more savage men—inconstant labour and fatigue were to be encountered by land, which rendered the perils by sea far preferable. Josephus, who must have had better means of information than what modern times afford, in describing the colonization of the world by the posterity of Noah, states, that “they passed by sea to many places:” and Tacitus

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asserts, that the first colonizing expeditions were performed by water and not by land. The ancients, too, at a very remote period, had a much greater knowledge of navigation than they generally get credit for in modern times. Sesostriis, King of Egypt, who, according to Du Fresne's Chronology, reigned 626 years after the Flood, and about three centuries after the arrival of the first colony in Ireland, fitted out fleets of such magnitude, that they sailed through the Straits of Babelmandel, from the Arabian Gulf to India; that they doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and returned through the Straits of Gibraltar and the Mediterranean Sea.

The Phœnicians also had early devoted themselves to nautical and commercial pursuits. Their ships were to be seen in the Mediterranean, the Baltic, and the Atlantic; and the Scriptures even record the long voyages that the ships of Hiram, King of Tyre, and those he equipped for Solomon, were accustomed to perform, and the wealth they brought back in return for those products they carried to foreign parts. It is, therefore, more than probable, that these enterprising navigators at an early date discovered Ireland; and that through their means alone, from its secluded position in the Atlantic, was it made known to the rest of the world. The Phœnicians were jealous of their trade, and slow in communicating its secrets to other nations, and, consequently, the sources from which it was derived. It is very likely, that the island was long known to them before the time of Alexander the Great, when Aristotle wrote; and mention is first made of the two western isles under the names of Albion and Ierne. The Phœnicians certainly kept their trade in tin, which they derived from the Oestrîmunidas, or Tin Isles, now the Scilly Islands, secret from the rest of the world for a considerable time. As Ireland, or, as it was then termed, the Sacred Isle, inhabited by the Hibernii, was described as only two days' sail from these islands, they no doubt visited it also; but whether they obtained tin or gold, which were subsequently found in the island, with other precious metals, there is now no means of ascertaining;—traces, however, remain of mines being worked there at very remote periods, as, for instance, the coal mines of Ballycastle unquestionably were.

About one thousand years before Christ, according to the most learned authorities, Hanno and Himilco, the celebrated Phœnician navigators, undertook their first voyage of discovery, and after passing the Straits of Gibraltar, while Hanno proceeded to the south, Himilco steered his course along the north-west coast of Spain, in the old track of the Phœnician voyagers, between Gades and Galicia, and then sailing across the ocean to the Scilly Isles, and thence to Hibernia, which he found thickly inhabited, and its seas crowded with hide-covered boats or currahs. He also describes the turfy nature of the soil and the mildness of the climate. Ireland was then, and has been from time immemorial, designated the Sacred Island. On his return to Carthage, Himilco deposited a record or journal of his voyage in one of the temples there, written in the Phœnician language, and which Avienus says he examined in the fourth century.

It would appear, from this record, that Ireland was a populous country when Himilco visited it, which was seven or eight hundred years before Britain was known to the Romans. It is absurd, therefore, to suppose that it could have been colonized by that island, which centuries afterwards was but slowly peopling itself. And no stronger proof can be adduced that the Irish did not consider themselves to be of Gallic extraction either, than that they used the term *Gaul* to designate a foreigner, while *Gael* signifies an Irishman, and (according to the learned antiquarian, Charles O'Connor) should be spelled Gadhel, the *dh* being quiescent. That there exists a strong resemblance at the present day in the manners and customs of the people, and even in the features and costume of the women in particular, inhabiting the east coast of Ireland and those of Normandy and Picardy, is unquestionably the fact; and that some words corrupted from the Irish language in sound and meaning are similar to those of the French; but then it must be considered that the Anglo-Normans of the pale had settled in that part of Ireland, and were originally from those provinces of France, and therefore these circumstances cannot affect in any degree the origin of the ancient Irish.

From their relative positions on the map, it is highly probable, that, while Britain derived its population from the opposite coast of

Gaul, Ireland was indebted to Celtic Spain for its aborigines. The general and compulsory migrations of the Celtic tribes from the time of Joshua were towards the west, and there can be no doubt that a portion of these people took refuge on the western coasts of Spain, and that in after times Phœnician colonies established themselves there also as an intermediate point admirably situated to promote that extensive commerce which they then almost exclusively enjoyed.

The Irish themselves contend that Galicia, on the western coast of Spain, was the quarter from which their progenitors sailed and colonized Ireland. Certainly, relations of affinity and commerce were very early established between the two colonies, and their proximity to each other would lead to such a conclusion. The distance from Port Ortegál on the Spanish, to Cape Clear on the Irish coast, which lie opposite, being north and south of their respective countries, is only one hundred and fifty leagues, two-thirds of which, as far as the island of Ushant, may be seen in clear weather from either side of the land. But no doubt that opinion has reference to the expedition from that coast under Heber and Heremon, sons of Gollamh, surnamed Mile Espaine, or the hero of Spain, from which they derived the name of Milesians, or *Clana-Míle*, the posterity of the hero, whose descendants in an uninterrupted line governed Ireland to the invasion of the Anglo-Normans. As the object of the Milesians, however, was the conquest of the country, and that they found an immense resisting force to oppose them, the inference is, that it had been colonized some centuries previous to that event. And when it is considered that a monarchy existed in Egypt in the fourth, and that Sesostris in the sixth century after the Flood, had acquired the art of equipping vessels capable of performing such distant voyages, it is not at all improbable that Partholanus might have arrived from Greece in the island at the early period insisted on by the Irish historiographers. That great discrepancies in dates have occurred as regards Irish history, as well as that of every other nation, is indisputable; but that is not surprising, when it has been ascertained, that there have been no less than one hundred and forty learned opinions on the distance of time between the creation of the world and the

birth of our Saviour: some making it only 3,616 years, and others extending it to 6,484, while the chronology in the Bible places it in the 4,004th year after that event. The descendants of Japhet took possession of the European isles as early as the days of Phaleg, who was born one hundred and one years after the Flood, and descended in the fourth generation from Shem, as recorded by Moses, who says,—“By these were the isles of the Gentiles divided in their lands; every one after his tongue, after their families, in their nations.” Now the Grecian were some of the most considerable of the isles of the Gentiles; and, when navigation was so well known two hundred years later, why should not Ireland have then received her first settlers from thence? In the absence of all data or other information from any authentic source, is it just, is it rational, on mere surmise or conjecture, to treat those authorities as fabulous which describe so minutely and chronologically the first colonization of the island by Partholanus and his posterity, and subsequently by the Nemedians, Belgæ, and Danaans, previous to the arrival of the Milesians? Divested of a portion of that poetical and romantic imagery with which early Irish history is clothed—the Egyptians, the Greeks, or the Romans, do not furnish materials so genuine for their own.

It has been already shown that Ireland was known to the Phœnicians at a very remote period indeed, and it must have been also to the Greeks, although they were not so commercially disposed as their neighbours; as Orpheus of Crotona, who lived in the time of Cyrus the Great, and wrote his poem of the Argonauts five hundred and forty-three years before Christ, and Aristotle, in his Treatise on the World, make mention of it by the name of *Jerna*. Juvenal, Pomponius Mela, and Solinus, call it *Iuerna*. Ptolemy, *Iuernia*, and Diodorus Siculus, *Iris*. Gildas Badonicus, who visited Ireland to consult the doctors of philosophy and theology, called it *Iren*—hence by the words *Irensas* and *Iri* are understood the Milesians and Irish. It was called *Ierne* by Claudian, Strabo, and Stephen of Bizance; and the *Insula-Sacra*, or Sacred Island, by Rufus and Festus Avienus. Plutarch calls it *Ogygia*: it was usual for the poets to give the name of *Ogygium* to whatever was very ancient. Cæsar, Pliny, Tacitus, Orosius, and all the Latin

writers call it *Hibernia*. The etymology of this name is doubtful. Some think it is derived from the Iberians, a people of Spain; or from Iberus, a river there; or Iberia, the ancient name of Spain. But others derive it from Heber or Heremon, the sons of Milesius. The island was known to the English for six or seven centuries previous to the conquest by the name of Ireland. Keating says, that from its first colonization it was called *Inis Alga*, or the Noble Island, and *Inis Fail* from the stone of destiny, Liagh Fail, on which the Milesian monarchs were crowned. It was also known by the name of *Eire*, Fodla, and Banba, from three queens who married the three Danaan brothers, monarchs of Ireland. The name *Eire* was, and still is most in use, the inhabitants being even to this day known by the name *Eirinachts*, or natives of *Eire*, in Latin *Erigena*. Hence John Scot, an Irishman, and a writer of the ninth century, took the name of *Scotus Erigena*. Camden and the Abbé MacGeohagan, think *Eirin* is the same as *Eire*, from which the etymology of the words *Ierna*, *Iuerna*, *Iris*, *Hibernia*, and Ireland are derived.

Ireland has also been called *Scotia*, and the Irish *Scots*, which some suppose have been derived from *Scota*, the relict of Milesius, who accompanied her sons in their invasion of Ireland, and lost her life in the first engagement between them and the Danaans. It is more probable, however, that not only the island, but the lady herself, who is said to have been a daughter of the king of Egypt, took the appellation from *Kinca-Scuit*, derived from her husband's Scythian origin, as it appears that another daughter of the Pharaohs married Niul, the son of Phoenius, their great ancestor, whose name was *Scota* also. Some writers suppose the name, from its coincidence, is applicable to the present kingdom of Scotland, but nothing can be more inconsistent with fact: even Dr. Macpherson is obliged to admit that the Scotch themselves in the sixth and seventh centuries acknowledged their descent from the Scots of Ireland. Eumenes, Ammianus, and Claudian, represent the Scots as the inhabitants of that country called *Ierne*. In the fifth age, Paul of Orosius, in his description of Ireland, says it is inhabited by Scots. In the sixth century Gildas, a British author, says, that Britain was ravaged by two savage nations, the Scots who came

from the west, and the Picts from the north. In the seventh century Isidorus Hispalensis represents Scotia and Ireland to be the same. Jonas Abbé and Adamnanus, Abbot of Hy, who wrote the life of St. Columba, affirm that he was born in Ireland, and that the island was inhabited by a nation of Scots. Eginhard, secretary to Charlemagne, in his annals, brought down to 812, says, that the Norman fleet and army having attacked Ireland, the island of the Scots, a great number of the Normans were slain in battle, and the rest shamefully fled and returned home. This century produced innumerable testimonies of Scotia and Ireland being the same country. According to Fabius Ethelwerdus, and the Anglo-Saxon annals, Alfred the Great, in 891, invited three learned Scots of Ireland to his court for the purpose of diffusing learning in his dominions, at that period in a wretched state of ignorance. Their names were Dufslanus, Macbothus, and Magilmumenus; the latter of whom, says the writer, was highly versed in literature and the arts, and a celebrated doctor among the Scots. An ancient author of the life of St. Kilian describes Scotia, which is also named Ireland, as an island in the ocean possessing a fertile soil, but still more celebrated for the great saints it has produced: among whom are enumerated St. Columba, possessed by Italy; St. Gal, by Germany; and St. Kilian, by whom teutonic France has been rendered illustrious. Humfredus, a Welch writer, says, that the Scotch themselves, and others, well know that the Scots are the offspring of the Irish, and that the Welch call them both by the name of Guidhil or Gadelians. Capgravius writes that the kingdom of Ireland was anciently called Scotland, whence came the Scots who inhabit Albany, which joins a part of the greater Britain, and is now called Scotland. The learned Usher says, that before the Scots and Albanians became one people in the ninth century, no author can be produced who designates Albany by the name of Scotia. And MacGeohagan observes, that when the English commenced calling the Scots of Ireland by the name of Irish, (in Latin *Ire* or *Irenses*.) and the island by the name of Ireland, (and both were adopted by the Germans, French, Spaniards, and other continental nations,)—the name Scotland was insensibly appropriated to Albany, which, how-

ever, was for sometime called *Scotia Minor*, to distinguish it from Ireland, or *Scotia Major*. In addition to this long list of authorities who bear testimony to Ireland being formerly known by name of Scotia, is that of a celebrated Scotch writer, Buchanan, who, in the second volume of his *History of Scotland*, affirms, "that all the inhabitants of Ireland were originally called Scots—as Orosius testifies, and our annals relate—that the Scots of Ireland removed more than once into Scotland, and were denominated Albanian Scots; and when they called themselves *Albini*, their neighbours gave them the name of Scots, which clearly proves their origin from the Hibernians."

The first notice taken of religious worship in the island is connected with the names of the three Danaan princes who reigned in Ireland when the Milesians arrived there, Eathoir, Teathoir, and Ceathoir, better known as MacCuill, MacCeaght, and MacGreine. The first took his name from worshipping a log of wood; the second from reverencing a plough-share; and the third from his adoration of the sun. History is silent as to what portion of their subjects embraced those respective rites, or whether these names were not acquired from the circumstance of MacCuill having extensively cleared the country of forests for the purpose of agriculture, and appropriated the wood to building purposes; while MacCeaght introduced the plough-share, an implement of husbandry so necessary for the cultivation of the land so cleared. MacGreine, probably a pious prince, devoted himself more especially to the worship of the sun, from which the name was derived, as that luminary was deified in the island not only then, but in every succeeding age up to the introduction of Christianity. The Milesians even brought with them from the east certain religious rites connected with fire, or sun worship: and a regular succession of Druids or priests, descended in a right line from Niul, the son of Phœnius, who appointed him high-priest, and they were entrusted with extraordinary powers, and held in great veneration by the people. When their ancestors, the Gadelians, under Aghnion, were driven out of Phœnicia by the adherents of Reffleoir, Heber, his brother, their high-priest, died in the island of Carenia, and was succeeded in the pontificate by his son Caicer, who being consulted

respecting their future destiny, after offering up sacrifices, he foretold that the most western island in the world was reserved for the dominion of their posterity, but that some generations would intervene before they got possession of the destined land. At the period of their arrival in Ireland, their chief priest, or arch-bard, as he was subsequently designated, was Amerghen, brother to Heber and Heremon, their leaders. He presided over the respective departments of law, poetry, and philosophy, as well as religion. He was the Brehon of the colony, and the origin of that metrical and chronological legislation which took so prominent a part in public affairs under all the Scotie princes. There is every reason to believe that the primitive Celtic religion was originally patriarchal, and that it afterwards became corrupted by an admixture of pagan superstitions. That it was similar in many particulars to the Jewish is undoubted. A few instances will suffice to demonstrate it. The Celts had a sovereign pontiff, or head of the Druids, to whom that order and the whole nation paid the highest respect. The Jews had the same, and Abraham, in the fourteenth book of Genesis, recognised the principle, by paying tithes to Melchisedech out of the spoil taken from the four kings. The Druids had such extraordinary power and sway, that whoever refused to submit to their decisions, not only in religious, but civil matters, were interdicted from assisting in their solemnities, which was considered the most grievous punishment. The Jewish high-priest at the head of the Sanhedrim was the tribunal to which the dernier appeal was made in all causes; and excommunication was the lot of those who refused to abide their decision. The Druids wore white garments—the Jewish priests did the same. The Druids lived in woods and groves—so did the patriarchs, the sons of the prophets, and the Essenians, a kind of monks among the Jews. The Celts had their female Druids, prophetesses, and adivines. The Jews had Miriam, Deborah, Huldab, and other prophetesses. The Celts vowed to Mars, or some other heathen deity, a portion of the spoils taken in war—so did Moses, Joshua, and David ordain what portion should be offered to God, to the priests, and to the victors. In public calamities the Druids offered up human victims, on which they threw all the evils that threatened them. The Jews

did the same by their scapegoat. The Celts began their day from the evening, the same as the patriarchs and Jews; and, like them, divided the year into three seasons—spring, summer, (or harvest,) and winter—the autumn was so unknown to both that they had no name for it.

These coincidences sufficiently evince whence the Celtic, or ancient religion of Ireland was derived. It came directly from the east, and, before its corruption by idolatry, was the religion taught by Noah and his sons to their posterity. It was the worship of one God, offered up not in temples, but in groves, which they deemed more acceptable to a deity embracing all nature. They honoured him with victims, observed religious fasts and festivals, and believed in a future state of rewards and punishments. Many of those ancient altars dedicated to this worship are to be seen to the present day in various parts of the island. They are formed of rude unhewn stones, and from the manner in which they are placed, demonstrate to a certainty that they were used for sacrifice, agreeable to the practice of the ancient patriarchs. There is a passage in the book of Exodus which confirms this opinion: "If thou wilt make me an altar of stone, thou shalt not build it of hewn stone, for if thou lift thy tool upon it, thou hast polluted it." These altars, therefore, must be considered substantial proofs of the origin and antiquity of the first inhabitants of Ireland, notwithstanding the scepticism of English and Scotch writers. They were called in the vernacular language CROMLECHS, or CROMLEACHS: according to some antiquaries derived from *Crom*, God, and *leac*, a flat stone; and by others from the Punic *Crom*, which means bowing the body reverentially, and *leacht*, the bed of death. These altars are also to be found in France and Britain, where they retain the same name, a proof that Ireland was the fountain of Druidic worship, which, like learning, flowed from thence into both countries. The stones of which these altars are composed, are in most instances of such weight and magnitude, that it is incredible to suppose that they had been placed in their present position by the hands of man; and the machines by which they were moved from their mountain beds, like the lever and burning glasses of Archimedes, are unknown to modern times. Near these are

generally found other stones from six to nine feet high, and about ten feet in circumference, which are supposed, like those mentioned in Scripture, to have been erected in memory of some great event, or used as places of private worship. There are also heaps of coped stones irregularly placed, some small and others large ; the former it is presumed are placed over the graves of ordinary men, and the latter over some great lawgiver or commander. These were called CAIRNS, and appear to have been formed by the hands of man at a very early period. It was the custom of all nations and ages that honoured their dead, to heap stones together to perpetuate the place of their interment. It is an extraordinary coincidence, that in more modern times, when sepulture in consecrated ground was denied the self-murderer, and those who had been excommunicated, and were buried on the highway, or where murder had been committed,—in many parts of the country, even to this day, persons passing by invariably deposit a stone to mark the spot, and in many instances they amount to a considerable heap.

Although the Celtic religion in some particulars so essentially resembled the patriarchal, still it differed materially from it in other respects, the consequence of that longing after idolatry which the Jews themselves had so early and so often indulged in, notwithstanding the chastisement that God invariably inflicted on them for the offence. But the Celts and other heathens who had not this salutary check to restrain their mythological aspirations, and who exercised to the full extent their idolatrous propensities, in course of time introduced such innovations as rendered their religion a compound of patriarchal worship and ethnic superstition and idolatry. They adored the sun, moon, and stars. The sun was more generally worshiped by the name of Bel, but sometimes by its Celtic appellation, *Grian*. The moon was deified by the name of Samhuin on every first of November. The Druids had also their mountain and river gods, and deities that presided over the hills and the valleys. They believed in the transmigration of souls, and consequently in the immortality of spiritual essences.

The Milesians unquestionably brought with them into the island a religion which had its origin in the east, but as Druidism was first planted in the west, it could not have been introduced by

them. It is, therefore, more probable that it was connected with sun or fire worship, which even to the present day has numerous votaries in Asiatic climes. This would elucidate in some degree the long disputed point as to the origin of the ROUND TOWERS of Ireland, and the uses to which they had been appropriated. It has been supposed by many, that they are religious temples of great antiquity, or monuments erected over departed royalty, or some benefactor of the human race; by some, that they are of Danish construction, and used by these marauders as watch-towers: while others contend that they were used as church-belfries, and occasionally places of retreat, and safes for the sacred utensils of the altar, and had their origin after the introduction of Christianity into the island. Of the latter opinion was Mr. George Petrie, R.H.A., V.P., R.A., who wrote a work a few years ago on ecclesiastical architecture, comprising an essay on "The Origin and Uses of the Round Towers of Ireland," which, strange to say, was rewarded with the gold medal and prize of the Royal Irish Academy. Notwithstanding, his arguments and conjectures were most fallacious, and he failed most signally to substantiate their Christian origin. "The Round Towers," he says, "are only to be found in the vicinity of churches; they are of the same architecture as the elder ecclesiastical architecture of the country; the doorways are in most cases arched, and frequently ornamented with religious and Christian emblems, such as the cross, the representation of the crucifixion, &c." He also preposterously assumes that he found the items of the expense of building one. The arch, which Mr. Petrie takes for granted as a proof of their being of Christian origin, and the cross, as emblematical thereof, were known in architecture more than a thousand years before the Christian era. Traces, no doubt, of the Christian religion having been celebrated in many of these places may still be visible, as the first missionaries almost invariably consecrated the pagan places of worship to the service of God. This they no doubt found agreeable to their new converts, who from long habit had become attached to their localities. Sites, probably, could not be found more suitable or convenient to the surrounding population for the erection of Christian churches than these afforded, and this accounts for the Round Towers being

found either connected with them, or in their immediate neighbourhood.

In no other country in Europe are towers of this description found, either as appendages to churches or otherwise, with the exception of two in Scotland and one in the Isle of Man. The former were, no doubt, erected by the first Irish colony that settled in Albany, and the latter had its origin from the same source, the Isle of Man being occasionally a place of refuge for the Irish even as early as the time of the Belgæ. But although Europe furnishes no instances of the kind, towers identically similar have been discovered by Lord Valentia, at Bhaugalpore, in the East Indies; and what is still more conclusive of their pagan origin, he found strangers to the place coming from some distance to worship at them. In the Himalaya and Persia, specimens of them have been also found. That the Irish Round Towers were not erected by the Danes, or connected in any way with their numerous descents on the island, is demonstrative from the fact, that in the county of Wexford, which might be called for a considerable time a Danish settlement, no traces of them are to be seen, no more than in England or Normandy, where they had also settled, or even in Scandinavia itself. It is, therefore, only rational to conclude that these towers are of very ancient date, and that they were originally appropriated to sun or fire worship, which at one time unquestionably existed in the country. Not long since they amounted to upwards of one hundred, but are now reduced to about thirty. While on this subject it may not be amiss to notice the gross error into which many English historians have fallen, who insist that at the time of the Anglo-Norman invasion, and it is to be inferred previous thereto, that there were no stone buildings in Ireland, and that the natives were ignorant of the art of erecting them. These writers take for their text Sir William Petty's "Political Anatomy of Ireland," a work replete with prejudice and falsehood as regards the people and antiquities of Ireland. But it was well suited to the disposition of a man then employed in confirming and participating in the spoliation that had been perpetrated against the posterity of those ancient inhabitants, whose memory he had so grossly libelled. It is true that at that period Ireland had no

dwelling-houses built of stone, and it is equally true that there were none in England up to the reign of Henry VII., castles and religious houses being the only stone buildings then in it. But Sir William Petty could not be ignorant that although the Irish had no castles, extensive churches and monasteries built of stone existed in the country from a very remote period, and no better proof can be adduced that a knowledge of architecture and stone masonry prevailed, not only long before the English, but also the Danish incursions, than that those beautiful models of the art, the Round Towers, then existed and do exist. Sir William could not claim them as being of Norman or English origin, they being unquestionably introduced by the Milesians or Phœnicians, and connected with sun or fire worship by these colonists. The dwelling-houses in England previous to the fifteenth century were composed of wood, and finished with lath and plaster; the Irish only differed in using wattles or hurdles, which were preferable to the laths in retaining the plaster: and it is yet a matter of doubt that dwelling-houses so composed are not more comfortable and convenient in many respects than those built of stone. The ruins of many of the ancient Irish churches built of stone are still to be seen, and the composition is so superior, that it has stood the test of ages, and has not been excelled by the best modern specimens.

It has been already observed, that the 1st of November was dedicated to *Samhuin*, or the moon; and it is an extraordinary coincidence, in keeping with the consecration of the pagan places of worship, that the Catholic church has one of its greatest festivals, the feast of All Saints, on the same day. It was usual on the eve to light the great fire of *Samhuin*, and give it out by the *Samnothei*, or priests, to kindle the domestic fires which had been previously extinguished. For this fire the head of each family paid an annual tax. The great temple of *Samhuin* was *Tlacts*, in Meath. The same rites were observed on the eve of May, the first of that month being dedicated to *Bel*, or the sun. The culinary fires were all extinguished, and rekindled from the great fire kept burning in the temple of *Uisneach*. St. Patrick, about two years after his arrival in Ireland, and at the time when the great council of the nation

was assembled at Tara, proceeded there also. On the eve of the festival, and previous to the fire of Uisneach appearing, he kindled a large fire convenient to the temple, which was deemed a crime of the greatest magnitude, and for which the Druids impeached him before Loghaire, the reigning monarch. But the saint, fired with holy zeal to accomplish his divine mission, and at the hazard of his life, preached the doctrine of Christ, and proved the fallacy of that religious superstition by which the Druids had so long imposed on mankind. But although the ancient Irish worshipped Bel, and Samhuin, their great deity was *Crom* or *Cruim*. It is doubtful, however, whether he was not Bel, under another name, or the Supreme Being; for it does not follow that their adoration of the sun, moon, and stars, prevented their believing in the existence of a superior deity. It is probable, from the name, that the Druids worshipped thunder; as *Crum* is the most ancient Irish for it. He was called *Crom-Cruadh*, or *Cean-Croithi*, head of all the gods; as Jupiter in the heathen mythology was called king of gods, and also the Thunderer. The most ancient name in the Irish language for a priest is *Cruinthear*, or the servant of *Crom*.

The **MOAT** or **RATH** is even more general in Ireland than the **Cromleach** or **Cairn**; in some districts they are very numerous indeed, and are frequently called by the natives **Danish forths**, meaning, no doubt, **forts**. They are mounds of earth of circular form, and of all sizes; but whether they were originally appropriated to religion or war, it is now difficult to determine. The name, and the ravines and passes by which they were guarded, and are still discernible in some of the most perfect of them, would induce to the latter opinion; while on the other hand, some of them being found in conjunction with the **Cairn**, the **Round Tower**, and the **Christian church**, would indicate that they were originally dedicated to pagan worship, and, from their construction, most likely to the sun or moon. In after times, when Christianity was established, the **Danes**, in their incursions, may have fortified or encamped themselves on these mounds, which were well calculated for the purpose; and from this circumstance have derived the name of **Danish forts**, which they still bear.

The **MILITARY RATH** was a place of great strength, fortified

with some art, and must have cost considerable labour in the erection. There is a model of one of these (the Staig fort in Kerry) to be seen at the Institution of the Dublin Society. Another, and the most important, is called the Grianan of Aileach; it is situated on the summit of a mountain eight hundred feet high, on the eastern shore of Lough Swilly. It is described in a memoir of the Ordnance Survey of Ireland thus:—"There is a gradual ascent of about a mile from the base to the apex, which is circular and precipitate, and commands an extensive and imposing view. The summit is approached by a road formed between two ledges of rock, and defining in its course three concentric ramparts, crowned by the cashel or keep, which forms an area of $77\frac{1}{2}$ feet in diameter, enclosed by a circular stone wall sloping inwards, which is from 11 to 13 feet in breadth, and about 6 feet high, but conjectured to have been, in its original state, twice or thrice that height. The remains of a well-formed gateway, and the lintels of doorways, though displaced, are to be seen in front. In the inner face of the keep two hollow galleries have been formed in the thick wall, about five feet high, covered with flat stone uncemented, and are entered from the area. In one of these is a recess with a seat; to reach these doors you pass on the inside face of the wall two flights of steps which lead to a terrace. This building is of uncemented stone, similar to that found in other cashels or fortress-keeps, and affords satisfactory proof that the stones, which average two feet in length, had been regularly squared with the hammer, though not chiselled.

The RATH CAVES which have been discovered in various parts of the country, particularly those at New Grange, in the neighbourhood of Drogheda, by Mr. Campbell, and at Garranes, about nine miles from Cork, by Mr. Crofton Croker, are highly interesting. At the entrance of the former, the gallery is 3 feet wide and 2 feet high, a few yards from thence it is only 2 feet 2 inches wide: its length from the mouth to the entrance of the dome is 62 feet, and from thence to the upper part 11 feet 6 inches; the whole length being $71\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The dome within the long gallery is in the exact form of a cross, the space between the arms being 20 feet: it forms an octagon 20 feet high, with an area of about 17 feet. It

is composed of long flat stones, closed in and capped with a flat flag. There are two oval rock basins, one in each arm of the cross. On entering the dome, not far from the centre, was a pillar, on each side of which was found a human skeleton. In the recesses were three hollow stone basins, 2 to 3 feet in diameter. The Garranes Caves are situated within a circular entrenchment, the diameter of which is 120 feet. On the south side appeared a circular pit 7 feet in depth and $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet in diameter. From this pit two holes, resembling the entrances to fox-earths, descended at an angle of about 20 degrees into chambers of a depressed bee-hive-like shape, which respectively led to a chamber 7 to 8 feet in diameter, without any masonry; from each of these a like communication led to a third and a fourth chamber. Here the passage into a fifth was blocked up with large stones, the difficulty of removing which terminated the exploration. The information obtained on this occasion tends to show that, numerous as the discoveries of these subterraneous chambers have been, there are, in all probability, a still greater number unexplored. Within a circle of five miles round Garranes, there are no less than fourteen similar entrenchments to be seen. Mr. Croker supposes the rath or fort to have been thrown up by the native Irish round their wig-wam settlements, to protect them from the sudden attack of an enemy, or the incursions of wolves, and that the subterraneous caves or chambers were formed for granaries, or secure depositaries in time of danger for their rude property. But this is mere conjecture, and inconsistent with probability. No doubt the caves were used as places of refuge in the exterminating progress of Cromwell in Ireland, and during the operation of the merciless penal code. But not only these caves, but also what is called the Military Rath, as well as the Danes Fort and Round Tower, were all originally connected with sun worship. The name of the rath at Lough Swilly, already described, would indicate this, notwithstanding Mr. Petrie's chapter on Antiquities in the Ordnance Memoir to the contrary, who interprets Grianan as synonymous with Duna, fortress or palace, and calls Grianan Aileach a royal palace; but its more correct translation is Grianan, the sun, and Aileach, a stone building—Grianan Aileach would therefore be, the Stone Temple of the Sun: and caves similar to that at

New Grange have been discovered in Hindostan, which, no doubt, as well as the Round Towers, were connected with sun or fire worship. Such was the religion of the ancient Irish, and such the places where its worship was celebrated previous to the arrival of St. Patrick.

Antecedent to the arrival of the Milesians in the country, its annals present few or no traces of legislative government. After clearing the country of woods and morasses, and appropriating the land to cultivation, their next care was to form a wise and permanent legislation. For that purpose they divided the people into different classes, so that the sept or family should know the station they were to fill. The remains of the Firbolgs and other ancient inhabitants being confined to Connaught, the rest of the kingdom was in possession of the followers of Milesius, and governed by his sons and their posterity only. To each of these was assigned his particular district or principality; and to prevent those wars which princes on an equality might be drawn into, a supreme monarch was chosen from the royal line, to whom, and to the great council composed of the various orders of the nation, assembled every third year at Tara, and more frequently, if necessary, all differences and appeals from the provincial councils were submitted. If any prince proved contumacious, he was first admonished, then interdicted, and, if necessary, compelled to submit to its decrees. Next in degree to the monarch and the provincial kings ranked the literati, among whom the Druids originally held the first place, as well on account of their high birth as the veneration in which they were held by the people. After the reception of Christianity, the archbishops and bishops succeeded them in their elevated station. The nobility and military knights formed the third order. The fourth were the Beatachs, whose duty was to keep open houses for strangers and the poor. Some historians say, that the Betagh was a sort of slave-vilein; notwithstanding, it is notorious, that considerable tracts of land had been granted to the Beatachs, to support with proper munificence their station, and that even to the present day, the names of these lands, and many villages, declare their original appropriation. The inferior military officers held the fifth place; and private soldiers, artisans and husbandmen the sixth. Sump-

tuary laws were also passed, by which the dress and number of colours in their garments denoted the rank and station of the wearer. Some historians, however, place the number of colours worn by the monarchs and princes of the blood, and the literati, as similar, while others give the former seven and the latter six. Both wore a birede or honorary cap on the head, and a gold ring on the finger. The third order wore five colours, with a chain round the neck, and a breast-plate, both of pure gold. The Beatachs were allowed four; captains or commanders of battalions three; inferior military officers two; and soldiers and plebeians one colour. These ordinances afford another proof of the eastern origin of the Milesians, from the close affinity they bear to those observed by the patriarchs and kings of Israel, whose sons and daughters were distinguished by their garments of many colours. Gjemahead, one of the most learned of the ancient Persians, directed that the people should be divided into classes and distinguished by appropriate dresses. And from those party-coloured garments formerly worn by the Irish, is derived the national costume of the plaid, retained by their descendants, the Scotch, to which they are so much attached to this day. As posts of honour and profit were hereditary in septs and families, purity of blood of course became a national object; and as the monarch and provincial kings could only be elected from the royal line of Milesius, great care was taken to record their genealogy and descent. Every candidate for the imperial or provincial sovereignties was obliged to give proof of his purity of blood; of his having been knighted according to the peculiar usage observed towards princes of Milesian descent; and that he had no remarkable deformity, so that his person might command respect, as well as his birth and accomplishments. The qualification of being knighted was so indispensable, that even the election of a candidate to the sovereignty who did not possess it was declared void. And there are some remarkable instances where personal deformity, such as loss of sight, disqualified the reigning monarch from longer ruling over the nation.

Although the monarchy was elective, and seldom went in lineal descent, yet, from the conquest of the country by the sons of Milesius to the coming of St. Patrick, comprising a space of about

1500 years, and from thence to the Anglo-Norman invasion, being 640 more—none filled the throne of Ireland who did not derive their pedigree from the three sons of Milesius, except three monarchs of the line of Ith, uncle to these princes, and the short usurpation of Cairbre Cincait, in the first century : a circumstance which has no parallel in the history of any other nation, and shows how well instructed the people must have been as to the constitution, and their reverence for the laws under which they lived ; so much so, that it extorted the praise and admiration even of Elizabeth's attorney-general, Sir John Davis, with all his prejudice against everything Irish, and subsequently of that great law authority, Lord Coke. To prevent, however, as much as possible, the inconvenience that might arise from a number of candidates contending for the monarchy, the successor to the sovereign was appointed previous to the demise of the Crown, who was called Rígh Damna. The most celebrated of the Ollamhs and Doctors had also their Adhbhars, or successors, declared in the same manner. And those who held places of honour or trust, had their Tanaiste appointed to succeed them in office. The provincial kings were in miniature what the monarch was at large. Each had his order of knighthood, of which he was the chief ; his Ard-droithe, or high priest, to superintend religion ; his Brehon, or chief judge, to expound the laws ; physicians, antiquarians, treasurer, marshal, generals of horse and foot, standard-bearer, &c. : all hereditary honours in families, and to which the most distinguished in each were elected ; and these customs continued in some until very recently.

When the monarch or provincial king was nominated, and before his title was acknowledged by the people, it was usual for the chief Brehon to declare the legality of his pretensions. The chief Senachie of the kingdom or province then stepped forth, and after making his obeisance to the prince, recited aloud his pedigree throughout all its various stages up to Gollamh or Milesius, when the agharm riogh, or royal shout, proclaimed him the elected of the people. This accounts for the ancestry of the Irish princes in the annals of the country being traced back, which, although tedious, and apparently fulsome, shows the precision and care observed by

their antiquarians in the discharge of the high trust reposed in them. The same principle was adopted by their descendants, the kings of Scotland. At the crowning of Alexander II. in 1249, Major relates, that a venerable old man stepped forth, and bending his knee to the prince, addressed him in the Irish language to this effect: "God preserve you, O'King of Albany, Alexander, the son of Alexander, the son of William, &c., &c." And this ceremony, MacKenzie says, was observed at the coronation of Charles I.

To the Senachies, or literati, were entrusted the charge of preserving the genealogies of the Milesian race; and to secure them from the temptation of abusing so important an office, ample provision was made for them by the state. Their rank, it was supposed, placed them beyond corruption; and the laws rendered their persons and property inviolable. They had also other important duties to perform, which tended to promote the love of justice and virtue, and check immorality and vice. They were expected to watch carefully over the actions and passions of their princes and other great men; and not only after their decease, as virtue or vice predominated, to transmit their memories to posterity with honour or infamy, but also while living to applaud their merits, or publicly upbraid them with their intemperance or folly. This had a most salutary effect, for in no country did a love of letters, nobility of sentiment, or generous hospitality more universally prevail. They also cultivated various and distinct branches of science, and were poets and historiographers, as well as genealogists. They were greatly revered by the people; indeed, it is not recorded of any body of men, possessed of such immense powers for such a length of time, that have abused them less. The Irish people appear to have been much attached to many of their ancient institutions and customs, notwithstanding the hereditary principle that placed certain professions and offices exclusively in the hands of particular families, and which will not stand the test of reason, and must be rejected as inconsistent with the enlightenment of the human mind, or the aspirations of genius. Hereditary legislators, judges, doctors, &c., are perfect absurdities. And although, under the Milesian Code, the most distinguished and fitting members of each family

were appointed to fill those various offices and professions; and that the law did not absolutely prevent men from embracing others different from those of their progenitors, of which there have been many instances on record; and also, that personal property always descended lineally—still the practice was most objectionable, restraining not only that fair competition for honorary distinction, but also neutralizing the spirit of improvement in every branch of art, science, and industry, and must have led to many of those evil consequences which in Irish history is so much to be deplored. The Brehons, or judges, to whom the administration of the law was confided, were chosen, as has been already shown, from particular families. They sat in stone chairs, and dispensed justice in the open air. Their decisions in general were tinged with a degree of mildness, by inflicting fines for crimes that should have been punished more rigorously. There appears, however, to have been an indisposition to sacrifice human life even under conviction for any offence—a feeling that every day gains ground in modern times, and which appears to great advantage when compared with the sanguinary and ferocious code that had so long disgraced the English tribunals, and which superseded these Brehon laws: laws which were respected and obeyed with alacrity by the people—very different, indeed, to the estimation in which the Anglo-Norman invaders and their descendants held their own, which were violated by them with impunity; and in some instances the lives of the judges dispensing them were not secure from the vengeance of these ireful chiefs, should their decisions run counter to their interests or designs. With all the logic, subtlety, and legal learning infused into our law and equity institutions, it is very doubtful, notwithstanding the immense expense it costs a suitor, whether their decrees are more just or satisfactory than the decisions of these ancient Brehons, who relied on facts, and rudely adhered to truth. The literati, including the Druids, who used the sacred character, which, previous to the introduction of Christianity, it was penal in others to study, the Brehons or judges, the physicians and surgeons, the bards, cro-taries or harpers, had all a language peculiar to their different professions. In the few remains left of these different sciences, the technical terms are radical Irish; a strong

proof that they borrowed but little from, whatever they may have lent to, other nations. By these means the language became refined and highly expressive, and is now generally admitted to be the most pure and original of any in Europe; although it has been attempted by Bollandus, who wrote in ignorance of the subject, to prove that Ireland was destitute of the use of letters previous to the arrival of St. Patrick, who, being versed in Roman literature, was the first to introduce the abjectoria, or Roman alphabet, in which the Saint naturally instructed his converts, to enable them to read the Holy Scriptures, then written in the Latin tongue, as well as to perform the service of the mass, which even to this day is celebrated in all countries, and by all nations, in that language; and from which circumstance the religion taught by him and the other Romish missionaries, was called Catholic or universal. The writers who inadvertantly led Bollandus into error, Colgan and Ware, admit—the former that St. Patrick gave Fiech, one of his disciples, the Roman alphabet, written with his own hand, who previous thereto had been sent into Connaught by Dubtach, the chief Druid, to present some poems in the Scottish language to the princes of that province; and the latter, that Benignus, another disciple, and his successor in the see of Armagh, wrote a work, partly in Latin and partly in Irish, on the virtues of St. Patrick, and the miracles performed by him. That the Gaelic or Scotie language was known in Ireland for many centuries previous to the coming of St. Patrick cannot admit of a doubt, as the evidence is incontestible, that the Scots had the use of letters from the time of their arrival in the island; and as they claimed their descent from Phœnius, the founder of letters, they made the study and purity of language a prominent feature in the education of their youth. By this means, and their remoteness from the Continent, and security from foreign subjection, the language through ages was preserved from corruption. The Irish has all the features and characteristics of an original or mother tongue: its alphabet, or *Beth-Luis-Nion*, differing not only in the figure and shape, but also in the order or disposition of its letters from all the other alphabets of European languages. It consists of eighteen letters, (13 consonants and five vowels); it commences with the consonants, which

follow each other, and are succeeded by the vowels in the same order. But this is not the only difference that exists in their arrangement: some of the consonants which are placed at the beginning of the Irish are found towards the end of the Greek, Latin, and English alphabets. The most ancient of the Irish alphabets was called *Babolith*, derived, according to some writers, from certain masters who formed the Japhetic language. This, however, was materially changed by the Druids, who, from their association with woods and forests, gave all the letters the names of trees, with the exception of two, whose derivations are not known. Such was the reverence in which they held the oak, that Pliny says "they esteemed it a tree especially chosen by the Deity," and that the mistletoe was a sovereign remedy for all disorders. It was cut with a golden sickle by the high priest dressed in white, at the proper season, at which ceremony all the Druids assembled. Their very name in the Irish language is derived from "duir," an oak, from which they were always called *Draithe*; and that they therefore should name their letters from trees is not surprising. These coincidences, however, not only show the antiquity and originality of the alphabet they invented, but that Druidism itself had its origin in Ireland.

Nor were the laws administered by the Brehons merely traditional or oral; written codes in the Irish language were compiled from time to time by men learned in the jurisprudence of the ancients. Among those of remote antiquity was *Seanus-Modain Mac Failbain*, a Brehon in the time of Con, of the Hundred Battles, who made a compilation of the laws called *Meillbreatha*. *Fithil*, of Teamor, in the reign of Cormac Ulfada, wrote a treatise on them called *Fionduith-Forchern*; and *Neid-mac-Aidna*, in conjunction with *Aitherne*, chief bard to *Concovar*, king of Ulster, who reigned a short time before the Christian era, wrote those famous axioms of the law, the *Breatha Nimvhe*, or Celestial Judgments. The monarch *Fearadach* and his chief-justice *Moran*, renowned for their equity, wrote commentaries on the laws. These, and many other productions on the laws were compiled and digested into one body in the eighth century, by the three brothers, *Faranan*, *Boethgal*, and *Moeltul*. This code was called *Brathaneimhadh*, or Divine

Judgments : they teach the various duties of the ruler, the churchman, the mechanic, and husbandman. Gratianus Lucius says, that he had seen many large volumes of Irish laws, written on parchment. Between the lines, which were at some distance from each other, there were words written in a small character, to explain whatever might appear obscure in the text, with marginal notes, as in books of the Canon and Civil Law.

These, and many other works on the Brehon laws, were deposited in the universities and monasteries, and were committed to the flames by the illiterate and barbarous Danes. If any escaped their ravages, they were destroyed by the Anglo-Normans, who were quite as intent on depriving the native Irish of all records of their ancient fame and learning as their barbarous predecessors. And it may in truth be said, not like the foul charge brought against the monks of suppressing ancient literature—that the English finished what the Danes began.

Music was cultivated almost to a degree of extravagance by the ancient Irish. The harp was at all times an instrument in such general use and estimation with them that it became a national emblem. It was customary in every house of any note to keep a harp for the use of the family, or for strange musicians who might visit them. It was called in Irish "Clarsech." They also played on the tiompan, crotalin, and chrotal, a kind of bell instrument applicable to church music, and the cruith, probably the same as the Welsh crwth. They had also a great variety of wind instruments. Poetry and music were deemed of Divine origin, and ignorance of them incapacitated a man from filling any important office in the state. Their national history, their legislative decrees, and all their systems,—metaphysical, philosophical, and theological,—were conveyed in poetry, and harmonised to song, which formed the chief diversion of their entertainments and festivities. They were sung by the bards and crotaries with instrumental accompaniments, and were well adapted to fire the soul to noble and heroic achievements.

The Scotie poetry was harmonious in cadence and measure : it was of three kinds, the martial, the sorrowful, and the reposing : the first displayed the glory of true valour, and celebrated the

victorious deeds of the hero, and the wisdom of the legislator; this contributed to instil courage and excite in the audience feelings of heroic pride and emulation. It occasionally diverged to the comic or hilarious strain, in which no people could indulge with lighter hearts or more cheerful dispositions. The sorrowful, sung of departed heroes who were bewailed, and the soul was affected with inconceivable distress, in the midst of which consolation was administered,—rage or revenge were seldom excited, tender feelings having more generally the preponderance. No custom could contribute more effectually to harmonize the manners of a secluded and martial people. The reposing portion generally closed their festal and convivial entertainments: it was a species of soft music, to which were sung the loves of their heroes, and the virtues of their heroines.

These customs were invariably adhered to during the existence of the monarchy, but underwent some alterations as the nation declined. They remained, however, in considerable force to the end of Elizabeth's reign. Spenser, who had then some of the poems translated, had to admit that they "savoured of sweet wit and good invention, but skilled not of the goodly ornaments of poetry; yet were they sprinkled with some pretty flowers of their natural device, which gave good grace and comeliness unto them." His description of the Irish bards, when he says, "they seldom choose unto themselves the doings of good men for the arguments of their poems," must be viewed with great suspicion, coming from a source so interested and hostile to Irish independence. The author of the "*Faerie Queene*" was himself an undertaker, and engaged in despoiling the people of their lands and other property; a pursuit no doubt unpopular with the native bards, who praised and glorified those who evinced most courage in resisting those intruders: he consequently calls these men, for not tamely submitting to be plundered, "licentious of life, bold and lawless in their doings, dangerous and desperate in disobedience and rebellious daring." Instead of contumely, the bards deserve to be honoured for their national and spirited conduct, a disposition that they continued to persevere in, until the power and importance of the old Irish families were totally extinguished. Manuscripts which are

still extant, pass high encomiums on the bards and crotaries who conducted the festal solemnities of the ancient Irish. Atharne of Ben-Hedar, son of Concovar Mac Neasa, king of Ulster, was celebrated for his poetical effusions; and his cotemporary, Craptine, favourite bard to Cormac Colangais, was justly esteemed for his great proficiency in music, both vocal and instrumental. These favourites of the muses flourished about fifty years before the Christian era. Princes who had musical talents were greatly revered in their own time, and their memories celebrated in after ages. Those who were less efficient in the science, were always attended, whether at court or in the camp, by their fileas, bards or crotaries, which tended both to their instruction and amusement. The renowned monarch, Brian Boru, was one of those princes skilled in music, and the harp he used is preserved in Trinity College, Dublin. Even in their hunting excursions—a kind of military discipline—music and verse were inseparable. In hunting they used wind instruments called the stuic, and Adharcaidh Ciuil, as well as in war. These hunting matches, in some seasons, continued several months: at night they encamped in the woods, in tents covered with the skins of the wild animals they had hunted down. On these occasions they exercised themselves in military dances, under the instruction of a master called Cu-rinky, or dancing hero, who, with great ability and expertness, directed their military evolutions to the sound of music.

Mr. Beauford has ingeniously illustrated this branch of national science in his Treatise on the Music of Ireland, as cultivated by its Bards. “The clarsech or harp, the principal musical instrument of the Hibernian bards, does not appear to be of Irish origin, or indigenous to any of the British islands. The Britons undoubtedly were not acquainted with it in the time of the Romans, as on all their coins on which musical instruments are represented, we only see the Roman lyra, and not the British teylen or harp. Neither can the Welsh trace their bards or music higher than the time of Cadwallador, who died in 688. Both the Greek and Romans were unacquainted with it, as it is not found on their coins or sculptures until towards the decline of the empire of the latter. The Greeks have it not. The musical instruments of the modern Greeks

consist of the ancient lyre, which they play with their fingers and a bow : they have also the guitar, but no harp. The harp, in old Irish, *Oirpeam*, is certainly of Teutonic or Scythic origin ; for Venantius Fortunatus, speaking of the several European musical instruments in the sixth century, ascribes the *lyra* to the Romans ; the *achilliaca* to the Greeks ; the *crotta* to the Britons ; and the harp to the Germans. And the author of the life of St. Dunstan, in the tenth century, says, that the *cythara* of this saint was called in their native tongue *hearpe*. The Irish bards, on receiving the Gothic or Scythic harp, or, as they denominated it in their native tongue, *oirpeam*, would naturally consider of the most proper means of adapting it to their vocal music, and render it capable of supporting the voice and performing their symphonic airs, for which in subsequent periods they became so celebrated. This they effected by filling up the intervals of the fifths and thirds in each scale, by which, and the assistance of their church music, they were enabled to complete their scale, and increase the number of strings from eighteen to twenty-eight, in which the original chromatic tones were retained, and the whole formed on the oral improved system. Under these improvements, though the instrument had increased in the number of its strings, it was somewhat reduced in capacity ; for instead of beginning in the lower E in the bass, it commenced in C, a sixth above, and terminated in G in the octave below ; and, in consequence, became much more melodious, and capable of accompanying the voice. These improvements were probably further enlarged on the introduction of the Latin church music by Malachy O'Morgair, Archbishop of Armagh, about the year 1134 : from which period the Irish poetry and music are said to have separated, and vocal and instrumental music became distinct. The bardic harp, derived from the Gothic, was a large instrument with deep bass tones, generally used in concerts or large companies, and distinguished by the name of *cream crutin* or *creamtin*, *cruit*, that is, the noisy or festive harp. This, from twenty-eight strings, was, in the later ages, augmented to thirty-three, beginning in C in the tenor, and extending to D in alto, which seems to be the last improvement of the Irish harp, and in which state it still remains. A harp of this kind, five feet high,

was made in 1726. In respect to the technical terms of the component parts of the harp in the Irish language, the wooden frame was denominated *clair*, or the board; the strings, *tead* or *teadach*; the arm or head, in which the pins were placed, *cionar*; the front or stay, *orfead*; and the pins on which the strings were tuned, *urnaídhem ceangal*. Under these relative denominations the Irish gave their harp various names: as, from its sounding-board, *clairsech*, or musical-board; from its strings, *teadhloin*, whence the Welsh *teylin*; from its arm, *cionar*, and from the trembling of the strings, *cruit*: among which derivatives, the original name *oirpeam*, from the Gothic *hearpe*, was nearly lost. During the middle ages the harp appears to have been an universal instrument among the inhabitants of this isle; in consequence, their musicians became expert performers and superior in instrumental to their brethren in Britain; and in a great measure merited the high character given them by *Cambrensis*, who observes, that 'the attention of these people to musical instruments is worthy of praise; in which their skill is beyond comparison—superior to any other nation; for in these the modulation is not slow and solemn, as in the instruments of Britain, but the sounds are rapid and precipitate, yet sweet and pleasing. It is extraordinary in such rapidity of the fingers, how the musical proportions are preserved, and the art every where unhurt, among their complicated modulations and the multitude of intricate notes, so sweetly swift, so irregular in their composition, so disorderly in their concords, yet returning to unison, and completing the melody. Whether the chords of the *diatesseron* or *diapente* be struck together, they always begin in dulce, and end in the same, that all may be perfect in completing the delightful sonorous melody. They commence and quit their modulations with so much subtlety, and the tinkling of the small strings sport with such freedom under the deep notes of the bass; delight with so much delicacy, and sooth so softly, that the excellency of their art lies in concealing it.' This eminence of the Irish harpers is not exaggerated, nor is it a compliment paid to the nation, as some have imagined. *Cambrensis* was one of the most accomplished scholars of his time, and perfectly understood both the theory and practice

of music at that period cultivated in Briton, where the English minstrels and Welsh bards principally applied their instruments in supporting the voice in plain song, and were in a great measure unacquainted with symphonic airs, to which, indeed, their languages were little adapted; on the contrary, the varied cadence of the Irish tongue, and the brilliant symphonies which naturally arose from it, must have greatly delighted and astonished an ear unaccustomed thereto. Besides, it was not in the full choir or crowded theatre that the Irish musicians were trained in practice; but in the lonely desert, the deep valley, and the rugged mountain, where, familiar with the sighing gale, softening echo, and pealing thunder, they became acquainted with those natural graces which give so much elegance to modern music; and the forte, piano, termente, &c., constantly adorned their melodious performances. In accompanying the vocal music with the harp, they sometimes imitated the modulations of the voice, then quitting it, the bass notes only sounded; again, whilst the voice moved slowly and gravely along, the treble strings delightfully tinkled above, as it were re-echoing the song from the surrounding objects. They seem in every part of their performances to have studied nature, and to have paid little regard to art, thereby forming a style strong and expressive, but wild and irregular. This wildness, however, though destitute of the truth of composition, was not so of the power of producing pleasing and extraordinary effects on the minds of the hearers."

The most extraordinary part of this extract is the tribute of admiration paid to Irish music by Geraldus Cambrensis, a Welsh priest, afterwards Bishop of St. David's, a relation of Maurice Fitzgerald, one of the leaders in the first Anglo-Norman invasion, and the avowed enemy of the Irish nation. He little reflected that a people so instructed in a science calculated to harmonize the soul, could possibly be the barbarians he represented them otherwise to be.

Some modern authors contend, that previous to and at the time of the Anglo-Norman invasion "the Irish ranked as a military people behind the rest of Europe, that their arms were few, and their defences simple, and that they had no chivalry." It is true, that the sword and spear were their principal arms, and that they were

not cased in mail to protect themselves from the attack of an enemy. They may probably have considered it cowardice to have had recourse to such a defence, or that the weight of armour was likely to impede the free exercise of those military evolutions to which they were trained. It cannot be denied that they fought to great disadvantage against opponents so formidably protected—but to assert that they were destitute of chivalry because “they took no part in the Crusades,” shows that those writers have not well considered the subject on which they hazarded such an erroneous opinion. The Crusades were projected by Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, in Picardy, who, having made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, was roused to indignation by the cruelties practised on the Christians by the infidels then in possession of that city. By the Pope’s permission he preached the Crusades over the Continent of Europe, and by his superhuman eloquence and enthusiasm roused all ranks to arms to rescue the holy sepulchre from the unhallowed grasp of the Saracens. But this extraordinary man did not visit Ireland, and could not, therefore, excite the Irish people to espouse the Crusades. William II., surnamed Rufus, in whose reign the first Crusade was undertaken, did not join it. He appears to have taken a rational view of that wild and uncertain enterprise. Having amassed considerable treasure, he made it instrumental in promoting his ambition, which was of a more tangible character, and he was soon enabled to satisfy it nearer home. His eldest brother Robert, Duke of Normandy, who had laid claim to the throne, and was diverted from his intention of invading England by the expectation of acquiring, in the luxurious regions of Asia, not only fame, but a more splendid settlement than either England or Normandy could afford, mortgaged the latter to Rufus for 10,000 marks, who took possession of it, as well as Poitiers and Guienne; the Earl of these states, following the example of Robert, having mortgaged them also. Rufus, and the English nation, then, might have been taxed more fairly than the Irish with a want of chivalry in not having joined the first Crusade. When the second was determined on, in which Richard Cœur de Lion so signally distinguished himself, and subsequently Edward I., the Irish were contending against the Anglo-Norman invader at home in a cause

that could not be more holy, the defence of their national independence, and their inheritance in the soil, so unwarrantably and treacherously assailed and usurped by a portion of these "*chivalrous men*" who joined so heartily in the Crusades. But although religion was made the pretext of those enterprises, as it was of every other undertaken about that period, and even now Russia puts forth the same pretext for her designs on Turkey, the real object was then, as it is now, conquest and plunder. The most profligate and dissolute, —men of desperate character and broken fortune—the dissipated, the scum and outcasts of Continental Europe were to be found in the ranks of the Crusaders. So far from the Irish being destitute of chivalry, it is more than probable that the order itself has originated with them. The knights who first distinguished themselves in Greece were called Curetes, which is to this day the name of a knight in Irish. The Gadelians may have brought it with them from Egypt to Crete, Phœnicia, and Spain; but certain it is, that from the foundation of the Milesian monarchy in Ireland this order of men existed, and their rank, dress, and qualifications were all defined. There were five equestrian orders:—the first of these were the Neagh Nase, or Knights of the Golden Collar, instituted by Muinheamhoin, one of the ancient Milesian kings, who derived his name from the gold chain worn round the neck, like the golden collar of the Roman knights. This order was peculiar to the blood royal, and none could be a candidate for the monarchy without being admitted to it. He who aspired to the honour was obliged to give proofs of his dexterity. A buckler was attached to a post in an open plain, and, according to the number of lances that he broke in running against it, he was more or less honoured; and admitted into the order if the number was deemed sufficient, but otherwise, refused. Princes were admitted at a very early age, and were furnished with lances proportioned to their strength. The Craobh-ruadh, or Knights of Ulster, for number, prowess, and discipline, were most distinguished in Irish history. Why they have been called the Knights of the Red Branch has not been ascertained; Crobh-ruadh, or the Bloody Hand, (Luna, a hand sinister, couped at the wrist, Mars,) being the arms of Ulster, was more likely their real title. The Clana Deagha, or Munster Knights,

were most valiant and intrepid. They derived their name from Deagha, who was expelled Ulster, and who re-organized this order about the year A.M. 3920. Daire, the son of Deagha, succeeded his father in the command of these knights, and from him they were called Righ-Daire, or heroes formed by the arm of Daire. They bore for their ensign the arms of Munster—(Saturn, a king enthroned in majesty). The Leinster Knights were called Clana-Baoisgne, from an ancestor of the celebrated Fion, who reformed them and gave them new laws. Their ensign was the arms of the province—(Jupiter, a harp, Sol, stringed Luna). But both the Munster and Leinster Knights were originally formed at a much earlier period. The Knights of Connaught were of the Danaan race, and yielded not the palm to any heroes in Europe. Their arms were—(Jupiter, a cavalier completely armed). Great care was taken of their education; academies, at the national expense, were established at Tara, Emania, Cashel, Cruachan, Naas, &c., where candidates entered at seven years old. They were instructed in letters and military discipline until they attained the age of fourteen, when they took their first vows. They were then exercised every day in casting a javelin at a mark, at which they were most expert. They were also trained in slinging the Cran-Tubal, from which they ejected balls with great force and precision. In sword-exercise they were well skilled, and they were taught to fight on foot, on horseback, and in chariots. At eighteen they took their last vows, to which they rigidly adhered through a long military career replete with heroism and glory. Chivalry was carried to such a pitch in Ireland, that in front of every military school a coat of mail and a shield was suspended under a handsome arch, to denote that the inmates were always ready for combat. At public festivals, and particularly when the young knights took their last vows, numbers repaired to witness the ceremony. Such foreign knights as chose to enter the lists, struck the shield three times with their lances, exclaiming, "I strike the shield and demand the fight." Their names, quality, and proofs of knighthood were then demanded, and the terms of the tournament adjusted. It is now generally admitted, that the European orders of chivalry did not originate with the Romans; and as the equestrian order existed in

Gaul and Germany in the time of Cæsar and Pausanias, it is not unlikely that it was introduced into these countries, as well as into Britain, from Ireland. The Trimarkisian of Pausanias is radical Irish, denoting three horses. Cæsar says the Equites in Gaul ranked next the literati—the same as in Ireland. The Germans call a knight Ritter; the Irish, Ridaire. The emperors of Germany and the kings of France, in the ninth and tenth centuries, previous to their coronation, had the order of knighthood conferred on them. This was clearly derived from the Irish; an instance of which occurred in the fourth century, when several princes were competing for the monarchy. Eochaidh, King of Leinster, seized on the palace of Tara during the election, hoping thereby to strengthen his claim: but on the Druids and Brehons of his own court representing to him how criminal his conduct must appear to the nation in taking forcible possession of the royal palace, much less in becoming a candidate for the monarchy without being admitted to the order of knighthood, he relinquished his claim, and surrendered the palace to the elected monarch, Niall the Grand. Chivalry, no doubt, was first introduced on the continent by Connall, the great Ulster Captain, and other Irish knights, who so frequently assisted the Gauls against the Romans, and who were called, by way of pre-eminence, “the Heroes of the Western Isle.”

The Fine Eirion, or military order in Ireland, was as ancient as the Danaans, and laws and regulations were established to govern it soon after the arrival of the Milesians in the island. It is an error to suppose that these militia were called Fine, from Fion-mac-Cumhal, the word Fine in Irish strictly implying a military corps. On the partition of the country by Heber and Heremon, provision was made for the different orders of persons who attended them from Spain. Lands were assigned to the military leaders, on condition of maintaining a stipulated number of troops to support the prince when required. The land thus disposed of was called Fearan-an-Cloidheamh, or Sword-land, in which originated, in all probability, the military tenures of Europe. These troops were divided into legions of 3000 men, called Catha, and the commander Taoiseach-an-Catha. Every 1000 of these was commanded by a colonel, called Fear-Comhlan-Mile, or the Commander of a Thou-

sand, who had under him 10 captains and 20 lieutenants. The captain was called Fear-Comhlan-Cead, or the Commander of a Hundred; the lieutenant Fear-Comhlan-Caoquid, or the Commander of Fifty. To each Catha or legion was appointed a number of the most eminent physicians and surgeons, whose skill was held in such high estimation, that it was a common expression—"the physicians of the army could not raise him." It had also a band of music, and a number of poets, to recite their deeds, and excite them to feats of valour. None were admitted to these legions who were not of large stature, without defect in their limbs, and who had not a scholastic education. They required also to be perfect in the use of arms, particularly the sword, the javelin, and the sling; to clear any wall of their own height, and run under the branches of a tree not higher than their knees. These militia were the children of the State, and it required considerable interest to get admitted therein. At the time of enrolment the candidate's parents and friends were obliged to swear, in the event of his being slain, not to revenge his death, but leave it to the discretion of the general: while the candidate himself subscribed to conditions, such as—if he was ever disposed to marry that it should be without regard to fortune, and that he would choose a woman for her virtue, courtesy, and other accomplishments;—that he would never offer violence to a woman;—that he would be charitable, and relieve the poor to the best of his ability;—and that he would not turn his back even on nine men were they to set on him or assault him. While these terms were insisted upon and observed, the Irish militia was invincible. Some antiquarians determine these legions in time of peace at three Catha, or 9000 men; but in case of foreign war or invasion, they were increased to seven legions, or 21,000 men: while others contend that each of the four provinces had that number, and that the Meath or Tara contribution would at least swell the army to 100,000 fighting men. They were composed of infantry and cavalry: the infantry were of two descriptions—Galoglasses, who wore helmets and a coat of mail that partially covered the body; they were armed with the pike, the sabre, and the axe. The Kearns were light troops, armed with javelins, lances, cutlasses, and the sling. The cavalry

rode without saddles, like the ancient Gauls, Romans, and Numidians. They were armed with spears and darts :—the heavy cavalry were attended by footmen called *Daltines*, whose duty was to attend to the horses. Their *Hobellarii*, or light horse, were well calculated to pursue a retreating foe with effect. They also used war chariots, of which Irish history affords many examples. Their arms were made of brass, after the manner of the ancient Greeks ; the handles of their swords were formed from the teeth of marine animals, which they rendered by some mechanical process equal to ivory in whiteness. Their osier bucklers, their bows and arrows, demonstrated their Scythian origin, and they made use of the same martial cry, “*Fara, Fara,*” that is, watch or look close, which they redoubled on the nearer approach of an enemy. The Greeks similarly used the word *eleles*, and the Romans *barritus*, when going to battle. The Irish, like the Lacedemonians, were led to combat to the sound of the flute and bagpipe. In times of profound peace they preserved order by quelling riots and insurrections, and were obliged to appear in arms when any emergency of the State required it. They had no subsistence-money from the monarch, but during the winter half-year they were dispersed through the country, and billeted on the inhabitants. From May to November they were encamped in the woods and fields, and obliged to fish and hunt for their support. This was not only a great saving to the country, but it inured the troops to fatigue, preserved them in health and vigour, and accustomed them to campaigning. In a country abounding with venison, fish, and fowl, it was no great hardship for a soldier to derive his subsistence from them in the summer season. They made but one meal in the twenty-four hours, which they partook of in the evening, but it was a substantial one. Traces of the huge fires which they used on these occasions are still to be seen in many parts of the country. They invariably encamped in the neighbourhood of water ; their tents were conveniently pitched, and their beds constructed with ingenuity and exactness. Next the ground were small branches of trees, on them was strewed a large quantity of moss, and over both were placed bundles of rushes, which, in the old manuscripts, are called “the three beds of the Irish militia.” They were under as much discipline when thus encamped

as when in quarters, and were obliged, at stated periods, to attend to their military exercise. Such are the particulars recorded of these renowned bands, whose fame has been extolled so much by the ancient Irish annalists. But whether they were deserving the high eulogium lavished on them or not, they were totally annihilated in the battle of Gabhra, which took place A.D. 296. The result of this battle, which led to such a serious change in the military affairs of the kingdom requires more than ordinary consideration in the detail. Carbre was monarch of Ireland, and Moghcorb, a valiant and popular prince, was King of Leinster. The Boroime Leaghan, which the monarchs of Ireland since the reign of Tuathal, claimed a right to exact from the province of Leinster, and which was the fruitful source of so many civil wars, was now made a pretext by Carbre for commencing hostilities against Moghcorb, whose fame he envied, and who indignantly refused to pay the tribute. The levies on this occasion were more extensive than in any former war. The Clana Morni, or Knights of Connaught, fought under the standard of the monarch, who was also supported by nine legions from Ulster, and the troops stationed in Britain and Gaul were withdrawn for the same purpose. On the side of Moghcorb was Oscur, the son of Oisín, the bard who commanded the Fine Eirion, or Leinster militia, reorganised by his famed grandsire Fion-mac-Cumhal, and from that period deemed invincible. These, supported by the Clana Deagha, or Munster militia, presented a formidable appearance. The entire force of the kingdom was never marshalled in one engagement before, and this so inflamed the courage of the respective chiefs, and their no less ardent soldiers, that an universal carnage ensued. Oscur fell by the hand of the monarch, who was himself slain by Moghcorb, and although he obtained the victory, he and a few followers only survived the combat, among whom was Oisín, the bard, spared, as it would seem, to record the fall of so many heroes, and the total destruction of these once-famed Irish militia.

These bands, after this event, were never afterwards reorganised; and although the military glory of Ireland did not immediately set, it led in future times, to the country being made so frequently a prey to the incessant ravages of the Danes, and ultimately to its subjugation by their successors, the Anglo-Normans. Had such a

disposable force been kept up, disciplined as it was in arms, and inured to hardship, is it possible to suppose, that the Danes could have made those predatory incursions into the heart of the country, and seize on and hold, for such a length of time, the most important places in the kingdom? or, that a handful of Anglo-Norman soldiers, no matter how brave, and even aided by the traitor Mac Morrogh, could have overrun the greater part of the kingdom, and defeated it with the same ease that they did the raw and undisciplined hordes that were brought against them?

From the time of the Anglo-Norman invasion to a recent period of Irish history, the policy of the English government, no matter whether Catholic or Protestant, may be defined by the motto "*divide et impera.*" The Lords of the Pale, who, by force and fraud, had possessed themselves of the greater part of the kingdom, and who in time had become "*Ipsæ Hiberniæ Hiberniores,*" were obliged in turn to surrender their possessions to other adventurers and undertakers, on whose fealty the respective English monarchs could more confidently rely. The wily Henry VII. laid the foundation of undermining the power of these feudal chiefs. Henry VIII., so familiar with blood, commenced the operation by ignominiously hanging, at Tyburn, Thomas, Earl of Kildare, and his five uncles, and confiscating their estates. Mary, Elizabeth, and James I., confiscated 5,675,809 acres, including the whole of the King and Queen's counties, the princely possessions of Desmond and O'Neill, the latter of whom had been driven into exile by a foul conspiracy. Cromwell still further extended these confiscations, and on the restoration of Charles II., there stood for adjustment 7,800,000 acres of forfeited property. The estates of those who had opposed William III. in 1689, comprising 1,060,792 acres, were sold under an English Act of Parliament, and thus more than two-thirds of the whole landed property of the country had been confiscated within a century.

The most remarkable events connected with the country since it came under the dominion of England, will be found in the subsequent pages of the History of the Maritime Ports of Ireland, to which this work is more particularly devoted.

POPULATION AND EMIGRATION.—Ireland, it appears, was densely populated at an early period of history. Soon after its conquest by the Milesians, the Picts, who had arrived in a peaceful manner on the east coast, were anxious to be allowed to settle in the country; but it was even then so thickly inhabited, or at least that portion of it which had been cleared from woods, that their application to that effect could not be complied with. The continued civil wars and sanguinary contests, however, attendant on the ambitious designs of the rival princes, descended from Milesius, for the chief sovereignty; and those awful ravages of the Danes in the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries, must have materially checked the growth of population—nor could it be expected to increase after the Anglo-Norman invasion; the incessant wars waged by the Lords of the Pale against the native Irish; Bruce's, Cromwell's, and William's desolating campaigns, and the barbarous penal code, even more exterminating than the sword. The introduction and general cultivation of that prolific esculent, the potatoe, and the extension of the elective franchise to occupants of small tenures in 1793, contributed more than any other circumstances to increase it. In the reign of Elizabeth the population was only estimated at 700,000, which it is said increased to 1,456,000 persons before the civil war of 1641; but it is probable there were no correct returns until long after. The population for the last two centuries was as follows :—

Years.	Persons.	Years.	Persons.	Years.	Persons.
1672..	1,320,000	1754..	2,372,634	1805..	5,395,456
1695..	1,034,102	1767..	2,544,276	1811..	5,937,856
1702..	1,320,008	1777..	2,690,565	1821..	6,801,827
1712..	2,099,094	1785..	2,845,932	1831..	7,967,401
1725..	2,317,374	1792..	4,088,226		

In 1834 it increased to 7,943,140 persons—comprising 6,427,712 Catholics, 752,064 Protestants, 642,356 Presbyterians, and 121,808 other Protestant Dissenters. It further increased, and was in 1841 8,175,124 persons, but in 1851 it had declined to 6,551,970 persons, being a decrease on the ten years of 1,623,154 persons.

The provincial population of 1851 was :—Leinster 1,672,591, Munster 1,857,412, Ulster 2,011,756, Connaught 1,010,211.

The preceding Tables show that there was an increase in 1851 over that of 1841, in England and Wales, of 334,100 inhabited houses, and of 2,015,852 persons in the population, or 12½ per cent., and that the uninhabited houses had decreased in number 19,740; that Scotland had increased in its population 268,558 persons, or 10½ per cent., and had decreased in its inhabited houses 132,544, and in those uninhabited 11,880; that the increase of Ireland consisted *only of uninhabited houses to the extent of* 12,970, while it decreased in population 1,623,154 persons, or 19½ per cent; that the total increase of the United Kingdom only amounted to 680,342 persons, or 2½ per cent. for the last ten years, and that it decreased in the number of inhabited houses 78,334, in uninhabited 18,424, and in houses building 2569. These statistics are everything but flattering to the pride, the power, and the wealth of England:—even taking hapless and deserted Ireland out of the calculation, there is nothing to boast of in the increase on its own population, considering the prosperous state of the commercial and manufacturing interests during the whole of that period, and strengthened as it was by numbers taking refuge in England from the calamities that pervaded Ireland during the four years previous to 1851. Scotland presents an increased population of more than a quarter million, but with a vast deficiency of all the social comforts and accommodation necessary to render that population as independent and as easy in its circumstances as it was in 1841. The decrease of 132,544 houses, or considerably more than one-fourth of all the houses that country possessed in 1841, tells its own tale, and shows that the ruthless hand of the spoiler has been there as well as in Ireland among the rural population. Ireland! what sad and awful reminiscences do these statistics recal to the philanthropic mind—famine, pestilence, oppression, and emigration of such a wholesale character that it has not been inappropriately termed the Exodus of the Irish Celt. Fully one-fifth of the population of 1841 has been swept away by these accumulated evils. There can be no doubt, that for more than six years of the intermediate time Ireland had increased in a ratio equal to that of England and Wales, and had it proceeded uninterruptedly for the ten years, taking that as a standard, the population would have

amounted to 9,210,826, but as it was checked by the famine at the end of six years, it would only have amounted to 8,796,545 persons, from which if 6,551,970, the population of 1851, is deducted, would still leave 2,244,575 persons to be accounted for.

The decrease in the population of 1851 proceeded, in the first instance, from the total failure of the potatoe crop in 1846, the only food on which a great majority of the Irish people were accustomed to rely for existence, and which, in fact, constituted their only sustenance. Famine, and its concomitant disease, set in most frightfully; mortality of the most awful and horrifying description ensued, and swept off, prematurely, at least a million of the inhabitants. The English Government, which should have taken early precautionary measures to guard against such fatal consequences, was criminally apathetic, and hesitated to interfere until outraged humanity could no longer bear even the horrifying recital of myriads of people literally dying of starvation, and many of them buried more like dogs than Christians, for want of coffins in which to place their remains. It is now upon record, that the people perished in great numbers before public relief, or indeed sympathy, came to their aid. What a fearful responsibility on this head have the rulers of Ireland to answer for both to God and man. A wise and politic Government, and a humane people, would have risked everything to have prevented such an awful sacrifice of human life. Although the potatoe crop had failed, the earth was teeming with plenty otherwise. The English people were rich, and the coffers of the Treasury were full, and yet a million of the Irish people died of want, and another million were driven by the iron hand of oppression to seek refuge in foreign lands. What were the means taken by the British Government to meet or palliate this dread calamity, caused as much by that vicious system that regulated the connexion between the countries, as the failure of the potatoe crop, which was only one of the effects produced by it? After delays innumerable, and that the finger of shame had been pointed at the English Minister, Lord John Russell came forward and contracted a loan of eight millions, which was to have been expended in relieving the Irish people. The great majority of the English Metropolitan press unfeelingly and inconsiderately inveighed against the raising of money for such purposes, and of thus taxing "the

industrious hard-working English tradesman to support in idleness a lazy people." Every one who read these articles would have supposed that this was to have been a free gift to Ireland in the hour of her calamity; but what was the fact? Although that country contributed to the expense of raising it as well as England, it was expended principally on the retainers of the Government, and the starving people got but a small proportion of it—that it was not granted as a gift, but as a loan, and that Ireland was made solely liable for its liquidation? A portion of the repayment was actually levied; and when the residue was remitted, it was on condition that the country should tamely submit to the infliction of the income-tax. As to the imputation that the Irish were a lazy people, and wanted to live in idleness on the industry of the English tradesman, facts and circumstances have amply shown the foulness of the assertion. The Irishman, without a coat to his back, or a penny in his pocket, when landed in the United States, a country that afforded him employment and remuneration for his labour, which he could not obtain at home, although living under a Government so long called "the envy of surrounding nations, and the admiration of the world," not only sustained himself, but saved money sufficient, in a most incredible short space of time, to take out his friends and relatives (whom, unlike the selfish Englishman, he never forgets) to this favoured land of his adoption. For the last seven years six millions sterling have been transmitted through public channels to this country, independent of private remittances, by these *idle vagabonds* to carry their intentions into effect. But as to the Irish having ever lived on the industry of the English people, the reverse is actually the fact. The English tradesman, and particularly those living in the west end of London, many of whom have clamoured against the Irish people receiving relief by means of this loan, have been living and accumulating fortunes for more than half a century on the labour of the Irish peasant, who had toiled incessantly on the land at home, and produced the means that enabled the absentee landlord to spend his income in the English metropolis in pleasures, and often in profligacies, to cater to which many of these industrious English tradesmen did not hesitate. On this occasion individual benevolence was of course exerted in England as well as at Constantinople, and all over the

globe, in behalf of Ireland. And, shame on the wealthiest nation in Europe to countenance, nay, tacitly solicit, eleemosynary contributions from foreign nations to sustain an integral part of its own population! And still how that nation must have winced to have witnessed a ship of war, with the star-spangled banner flying at her mast-head, entering the harbour of the second city of the United Kingdom, filled with food furnished by the people and Government of the United States, to sustain its starving population. How fallen must proud England have been, and how sunk in the estimation of foreign nations, when, with abject and grovelling servility, Lord John Russell proposed, and the British House of Commons passed, a vote of thanks to the United States' Government, for having gratuitously fed a portion of that population which they should have provided for themselves! Not eight, but twenty millions of the public money of the United Kingdom should have been originally voted to the purpose, not as a loan, but as a free gift, which would have prevented the calamitous consequences so much to be deplored. Had such a sum been granted and properly administered, there would have been no occasion for foreign assistance, or a rate in aid, which Leinster and Ulster had no more right to be taxed with than Yorkshire or Lancashire, and far less than Westminster.

The Census returns have already shown that there is a positive decrease in the population of 1851 of 1,623,154 persons, and that it is also more than probable, that between the years 1841 and 1847 the population had so increased, that the number to be accounted for amounted to 2,244,575 persons. The Emigration returns for the four years ending some few months previous to the Census being taken, accounts for 873,048 of that number having emigrated to America. The number of persons born in Ireland, and residing in England, Scotland, and islands in the British seas, on the 31st March, 1851, was 195,538 persons under twenty years, and 538,328 over that age; total 733,866 persons—from which deduct 419,256 born in Ireland and returned in 1841 in the Census of Great Britain, gives 314,610 persons, who probably may have taken refuge in England and Scotland between the years 1847 and 1851, which being also deducted from the gross number, would leave 1,056,917 persons unaccounted for, and whom there can be scarcely a doubt, perished by famine and pestilence. One of the

most operative and successful means of carrying this exterminating process into effect was the power of ejectment vested in the hands of the landlords, which they exercised during this period with unrelenting severity. It appears by a Parliamentary paper, moved for by Mr. T. McCullagh in 1851, that there were 44,494 ejectments entered in the Superior Courts and at Quarter Sessions, on which judgments were given in favour of the plaintiffs to the extent of 35,416, for three years ending 1849, independent of the County Dublin, from which there was no return :—

COURTS.	Number of Ejectments entered.			Total entered.	Number of Judgments for the Plaintiffs.			Total Judgments.
	1847.	1848.	1849.		1847.	1848.	1849.	
Queen's Bench ...	2076	2790	3555	8421	1555	2284	2810	6649
Exchequer	1032	1137	1064	3233	843	1015	889	2747
Common Pleas ...	116	100	93	309	112	86	83	281
Quarter Sessions..	7942	12322	12267	32531	6026	9657	10056	25739
	<u>11166</u>	<u>16349</u>	<u>16979</u>	<u>44494</u>	<u>8536</u>	<u>13042</u>	<u>13838</u>	<u>35416</u>

Large as this amount is, the number otherwise expelled by compromise, by force and fraud, exceed it. Those who have inveighed against the surplus population of Ireland, and devised so many schemes to get rid of it, must now be gratified;—the preceding Census returns have shown that it has increased in nothing but *uninhabited houses*.

The Emigration Tables here given for the four years ending 1850, clearly show, that if the tide of emigration continues on the same extensive scale for the next ten years, (and three of them have already passed producing the same results,) the population of the country will be so reduced, that if it becomes prosperous under such circumstances, it will be the first instance of the kind recorded in history. Had the Government, the landlords and capitalists of Ireland taken advantage of the increased population with which Providence had blessed the country for more than half a century, it would be now prosperous indeed. But, in neglecting to direct its energies, or interest themselves in the welfare of the people, (to say nothing of the oppressions resorted to,) they forgot that their interests were inseparable; and they have already tasted of that bitter draught prescribed by their own apathy and folly, which, notwithstanding the unexpected high prices of agricultural produce in 1853-4, they are yet destined to drink to the very dregs.

A Return of Emigration for the Four Years commencing in 1847, and ending in 1850 (both Years inclusive), from the following Ports, at which there were Government Emigration Officers stationed.

	YEAR 1847.				YEAR 1848.				YEAR 1849.				YEAR 1850.*				TOTAL FOR THE FOUR YEARS.			
	United States.	British America.	Australia and other places.		United States.	British America.	Australia and other places.		United States.	British America.	Australia and other places.		United States.	British America.	Australia and other places.		United States.	British America.	Australia and other places.	
Liverpool	103865	30397	460	127496	2080	1566	1527	147745	4630	1627	168109	5202	2876	545015	42309	6419				
Glasgow and Greenock	3928	3267	533	7240	2456	339	959	10636	3391		11431	2403	591	33235	11517	2422				
Dublin	2486	6682	...	7363	317	7581	2280	...	5838	1530	...	23268	10809	...				
Belfast	3938	7059	1	6800	1930	7134	2516	...	4135	1735	...	22007	13240	1				
Cork	4270	13980	281	8600	3021	6	6	7846	1869	6	6026	2071	2	26742	20941	295				
Limerick	2086	9642	...	2777	6624	3825	7729	...	4214	6444	...	12902	30439	...				
Londonderry	5711	6674	...	6343	1188	6846	969	...	3304	838	...	22204	9669	...				
Waterford and New Ross	1241	8515	...	1021	2428	2117	5027	...	1767	4125	...	6146	20095	...				
Sligo and the Out-ports	1146	11904	...	747	2331	1665	2313	...	1009	1395	...	4567	17943	...				
London	128471	98120	1275	168387	22375	1901	2492	195395	30724	2492	203833	25743	3469	696086	176962	9187				
Plymouth	10164	2123	5687	12373	1119	19246	21401	14225	927	21401	10558	1087	13575	47350	5256	59909				
	353	1152	3546	...	996	7509	14611	101	1171	14611	207	1033	6964	661	4352	32830				
	138988	101395	10508	180760	24490	28656	32822	209721	32822	38504	214628	27863	24008	744097	186670	101676				

The Tables for the four years ending 31st December, 1850, show that there emigrated from Liverpool, Glasgow, and eight of the principal Irish ports, to the United States, 696,086 persons; to British America 176,962 persons; and to Australia and other destinations 9,137 persons. From London and Plymouth there emigrated to the United States 48,011 persons; to British America 9,608 persons; and to Australia and other places 92,539 persons; making the total emigration from these ports 1,032,243. There are no official returns for Newry, Dundalk, Drogheda, Wexford, Skibbereen, Coleraine, and other secondary Irish ports, no emigration officers being stationed in them by Government; but, notwithstanding, there must have been emigration to some extent from all these ports. These returns commence immediately after the first failure of the potatoe crop in 1846, and show that the Irish people have been deserting the country since then to an awful extent. The emigrants who took shipping at Liverpool, Glasgow, and the eight Irish ports were almost exclusively Irish; and many of those also, who embarked for the United States and British America at the ports of London and Plymouth. From Bristol, too, (for which there has been no return,) there must have been a considerable Irish emigration, from the constant communication between that port and the south and south-east part of Ireland. A very remarkable circumstance connected with these returns is, that the tide of emigration from Ireland which flowed towards British America in 1847, and previous thereto, has since then diminished considerably, while that to the United States has gone on, year after year, increasing. In 1847 there proceeded from the first ten ports (in the Tables) 128,471 persons to the United States, and to British America 98,120, making a total of 226,591. In 1848 the number to the United States was 168,387, being an increase on the preceding year of 39,916, while the whole of those persons shipped for British America only amounted to 23,375, being a decrease of no less than 75,745 persons, or 420 per cent. on the previous year's emigration *there*. In 1849 it increased to the United States to 195,395, and to British America to 27,333, (being a small increase on the year before). In 1850 it still further increased to the United States to 203,833, while it again receded to 25,743 to British America.

Comparing the year 1847 with 1850, it appears that the emigration to the United States had increased 63 per cent., while that to British America had decreased 381 per cent.: the emigration from these ports in 1850 to both parts of America exceeding that of 1847 (a year of famine in Ireland) by 2,985 persons.

Since the conclusion of the general war, thirty-eight years have elapsed, in which time 3,468,292 persons have emigrated from the United Kingdom, of whom 1,791,444 emigrated within the six years commencing in 1847 and ending 1853, being an average of 298,574 persons per annum. The Commissioners, in their return, remark, that the great bulk of the emigrants for many years have been Irish, and that within the last six years in particular, it is estimated that they amounted to 1,318,226 persons. The year 1851 exceeds 1850 by 69,469 emigrants; the United States being still the favoured destination of the Irish Celt, there being an increase of 52,729 persons thence over 1850. Although on the following year there was a diminution of 23,096 emigrants compared with the previous year, still they amounted to three times the number of those who proceeded to Australia, with all its golden charms. The following are the particulars for the two years, as well as the amount of money remitted by the Irish Emigrants in America to take out their friends since 1848:—

	1851. Persons.	1852. Persons.	Amount remitted through Banks and Public Companies.
United States ..	267,357	244,261	1848....£460,000
British America	42,605	32,873	1849.... 540,000
Australia	21,532	87,881	1850.... 957,000
Other places ..	4,472	3,749	1851.... 990,000
			1852.. 1,404,000
	<u>335,966</u>	<u>368,764</u>	
			For 5 years £4,351,000

This speaks volumes in favour of the United States compared with British America. The free form of Government of the States, to which the Irish emigrant is fondly attached—the reward of industry in the realisation of landed property which he can safely there call his own estate; and the reflection that sweetens labour—that if he toils it is for the benefit of himself or family, and not for an

oppressive or an alien landlord, and his apprehension of again coming under English rule, as a provincial in a foreign land. These are some of the considerations that induce the Irish emigrant to give the United States a preference. He has also a shrewd idea that the country of his adoption, now in the ascendant, is likely to become the greatest nation of which there is record in ancient or modern history. Two events are calculated to hasten that consummation, the discovery of gold in California and Australia, and the immense Irish emigration that has set in all at once with such force on its shores. Look at its present prosperous and elevated position; its population increased two-fold within the last twenty years, and in 1874 will in all probability amount to upwards of 50 millions of inhabitants; its territory sufficiently fruitful and extensive to sustain five times that number—the valley of the Mississippi alone being capable of producing food for 100 millions of people; its naval superiority increasing even with more rapidity than its population, its commercial tonnage now exceeding that of Great Britain, long the greatest maritime power in the world: its exports every year consist of new commodities, and its imports comprise all the luxuries and necessities of the nations of the earth with which it trades. Every tide brings it an increase of the precious metals direct from California and Australia, in return for its products, or by passengers; and among the rest, those from Ireland *are now* of an improved class that do not arrive altogether empty-handed. Manufactures, too, are progressing rapidly; population and capital, which she is fast acquiring, will soon enable her to rival England in that branch of industry also. Mr. James Kennedy, of Belfast, in his comprehensive communications to Lord Granville, Chairman of the Transatlantic Packet Commission, has shown that, in the cotton-growing districts of the United States, there were in June, 1850, works established driving 175,000 spindles, and consuming 100,000 bales of cotton annually, on which there was a saving of 25 per cent.; and that it was impossible for the English manufacturer longer to meet the American in the United States market with coarse or heavy cotton goods: and he might have added, that in less than twenty years it would be closed against him for the finer fabrics also.

The ways of Providence are inscrutable! and, although sometimes slow, they are invariably just. The foul system of government practised in Ireland, the oppressions of the Irish landlords, and the expatriation of the Irish peasant, will have the effect of producing such changes, as those who anticipated such pleasing and prosperous results from the depopulating system, will have substantial reasons long to deplore. The Irish Celt, obliged by dire necessity to take shelter on the other side of the Atlantic, looks anxiously across its bounding billows towards the land of his fathers and the home of his earliest affection. Although he has now the proud prerogative of being a citizen of the great American republic, which his labour and his devotion to its institutions are so well calculated to sustain, yet the wrongs he has endured, and the fate of that country he loved so well, still hold the uppermost place in his thoughts, and he will anxiously watch the march of events, in the hope that some fortunate circumstance may occur to render it what God and Nature intended it to be—"Great, glorious, and free."

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.—If credit can be attached to the writings of Tacitus, Agricolæ historiographer, Ireland was a commercial nation of early date, and its ports better known for trade, and more resorted to by foreigners, than those of Britain; and Ptolemy, who published his geographical tables A.D. 140, accurately describes its harbours, rivers, and the numerous tribes inhabiting the country: information which he could have scarcely obtained, except through the medium of commercial intercourse. Navigation, as well as letters, were assuredly first taught in Europe by the Phœnicians; and the Milesians, or Iberian Spaniards, from the close affinity and intercourse that existed between them, must have derived a knowledge of both from them, previous to their descent upon Ireland. It is evident that the Milesians had considerable experience in nautical affairs during their occupation of the Western Coast of Spain, as Breogan, the grandsire of Milesius, built the City of Brigantium, at the entrance of which was placed a pharos, or light-house, called Tor Breogan, or Breogan's Tower. Ninnius says, that the Flavium Brigantium of the ancients was

erected by Hercules, as well as a tower, on the top of which, by wonderful art, a reflecting glass was placed, in which vessels at a great distance to sea might easily be seen. Ninnius, who was unacquainted with the Irish annals, confirms them on this point, as well as Sir Isaac Newton, who, in his "Chronology," states, that the Hercules, or Conqueror of Spain, was the son of Belus, whom the Irish historians claim as the father of Gollamh, or Milesius. That the ancients made use of such glasses is a fact well authenticated. The ships that sailed to and from Rhodes were easily described by means of a mirror placed on the top of the Colossus. The destruction of the Roman fleet by the burning-glasses of Archimedes, is matter of history; and one of the Ptolemies erected a tower at Alexandria, in which a glass was placed, when exposed to the rays of the sun, burned ships at a considerable distance. There is no doubt that the first colonies which settled in Ireland, and particularly the Milesians, arrived there in navigable ships; but deeming it to be the Island decreed for them by fate, over which they were to rule with such power and glory, and finding the soil and climate so fertile and salubrious, they determined on settling there permanently. Concluding their wanderings at an end, and, intent on preserving exclusively what they had acquired by their superior valour, they may have either destroyed their shipping to prevent a possibility of their followers returning, a course not unusual with commanders of more modern date, when intent on accomplishing an object; or they may have allowed any science or knowledge that they had of ship building or nautical affairs to fall into disuse. For many centuries after they had taken possession of the island, their princes appear to have been more anxious to avoid than hold communication with foreign nations. They seem to have looked on commerce as derogatory to their pride of ancestry; and the science of arms and the sovereignty of Ireland as the perfection of human attainment. Some writers contend that currahs, or hide-covered boats, were the only naval structures with which the ancient Irish were acquainted up to the time of the Anglo-Norman invasion. Such boats were undoubtedly much used both by the Scots and Picts, and might answer the purpose of short voyages, such as those between the Northern parts of Ireland

and Scotland. But those expeditions, fitted out by Crimthan, Niall the Great, and other Irish monarchs, against Gaul and Britain in the fourth century, must have been composed of vessels of a superior order. There cannot be a stronger proof of the apathy or indifference of the Irish to commercial pursuits about this period than their allowing the Danes, after clearing the interior of the kingdom of them, to retain the most important seaports in their hands for the purposes of trade, which they must have carried on to some extent, if the tribute they occasionally paid for the privilege be taken as a criterion. That sailing vessels were, however, known, and navigated by the Irish previous to the coming of the Danes, much less the Anglo-Normans, is indisputable. The ancient name of Limerick is associated with that of ships, and has, in one instance at least, furnished a fleet which successfully encountered the Danes on their own element. It is difficult to reconcile the assertions of these adverse writers, who will not admit that the ancient Irish had either commerce or manufactures, with the fact, that they were possessed of articles of utility, and even of luxury, which could only be acquired by means of commerce; as well as other articles of the richest and most exquisite workmanship, which must have been manufactured by themselves. Scarcely a century had elapsed after the conquest of the country, when mines of gold, copper, and lead were discovered by Uachadhan, who was singularly skilful in making gold and silver goblets. Colours for dying purple, green, and yellow were then in use. Nearly a thousand years before the Christian era, golden helmets, chains, rings, and collars, swords and shields richly ornamented, cloaks and other garments of the finest texture, chariots, and even chess and backgammon-boards, were manufactured by them. That there were goldsmiths and jewellers in Ireland at a very early date is undoubted. Soon after the introduction of Christianity, the churches were rich in sacred vessels, which were composed of pure gold; and the names of three of St. Patrick's relatives are still preserved who are said to have been goldsmiths. The art of ornamenting manuscript books with gold, silver, and gems, was certainly known, as Usher mentions a version of the Four Evangelists, by St. Columba, ornamented with plates of silver, which was preserved in the church of Kells. Nu-

merous relics of the ingenuity of the ancient Irish, as well as of their wealth and grandeur, are from time to time dug out of the bowels of the earth, many on the site where the royal palace of Emania once stood near Armagh, and in the county Limerick and elsewhere. At the time of the Anglo-Norman invasion the descendants of the Danes of Dublin and other Irish seaports carried on a considerable trade with England and France, as well as with their parent countries of the north: in proof of which, Fitzstephen, on arriving on the Irish coast, captured a vessel loaded with wine from France, and bound for the port of Wexford. That woollens were then manufactured in the country may be inferred from the facts, that although the Plantagenets and Tudors were intent on subjugating Ireland to English rule, yet they early encouraged the trade and manufactures of the country in the most liberal way; in some instances giving it even an advantage over England in that respect. In 1289 (the reign of Edward I.) an Act was passed permitting the free export of all kinds of Irish produce and manufactures. In 1360 Edward III. granted a free export to all Irish cloth or frieze, and even excepted these staples in England from subsidy or duty, if manufactured from Irish wool. In the latter years of this reign, Irish woollens were in great repute: they consisted of a frieze cloth and serge; the former worked into a mantle or coverlet, called by the natives a cadow. This manufacture was established in Dublin, Cork, Kilkenny, Waterford, Ross, Drogheda, and Trim. In the reign of Richard II. these mantles were exported to England duty free, and the Pope's agent obtained the same privilege in respect to Italy. In 1382, five of these mantles, of exquisite texture and workmanship were sent to Rome, and presented to his Holiness. In 1463 the merchants of London complained of the injury done their trade by the increased importation of foreign manufactures, and they were relieved by the Government imposing a tax thereon, but from which the manufactures of Ireland were exempted. By these and similar means the woollen trade of Ireland had been fostered and encouraged; and it rested with that ungrateful family for whom Ireland suffered so much, to make laws calculated to destroy its commerce and manufactures. In the reign of Charles I. prohibitory measures against the free exercise of Irish commerce

were first enforced. In a proclamation of war against Spain and Portugal in 1627, it is set forth, "that Ireland, by reason of the peace and plenty it had enjoyed of late, is so well stored with profitable commodities and merchandize, that it had not only enough for its own use, but also for exportation;" notwithstanding which, it was forbidden to export foreign.

The first attempt at establishing the linen trade, or rather in uniting the linen with the woollen trade of Ireland, was made by Pierce, eighth Earl of Ormond, who brought from Flanders a number of artificers, who instructed the people in working diaper, tapestry, and cushions, specimens of which are yet to be seen in Kilkenny and Carrick-on-Suir castles. Subsequently Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, who, although haughty and dictatorial to the Irish nobility and the parliament, was subtle, politic, and calculating in all his measures—keeping his own interest always in view, his chief aim was to render good service to the cause of absolutism, for which his master was then contending.—He was three times appointed to the administration of Irish affairs, and was, therefore, well acquainted with the great natural resources of the country, and the wants and wishes of the people. He was opposed to the restrictive policy of Charles, who promised redress and took the required fee, but never redeemed his pledge. Strafford made great efforts to encourage and extend the commerce and manufactures of Ireland. He entertained an opinion, that linen could be made 20 per cent. cheaper in Ireland than in France, Holland, or the Netherlands; and in proof that he was sincerely disposed to promote this manufacture he embarked £30,000 in the pursuit. He also imported flax seed, and brought over competent persons from France to superintend the cultivation of the flax, and the spinning and weaving of the yarn and cloth. Had he continued Chief Governor for some years longer, and that peace had been preserved, the trade might have been then firmly established in the country. His successor, the Marquis of Ormond, followed up Strafford's views in respect to the linen trade, and even sent persons to the Netherlands to be taught in every branch of the manufacture, as well as the bleaching of the cloth. Five hundred families from Brabant, Rochelle, and the Isle of Rey, conversant with the manu-

facture, were also brought into the country, and located at Chapelizod, near Dublin, and at Carrick-on-Suir, and the trade at the former place carried on for account of the king. All these efforts, however, were attended with no practical results, and, strange as it may appear, there is not a vestige to be found of it in either of these places at the present day. The civil war, which devastated the country from 1641 to 1651, including Cromwell's ferocious and fanatical crusade, must have seriously interrupted these attempts at industrial pursuits. A report drawn up by Sir William Petty and Colonel Lawrence, early in the reign of Charles II., states "that although the general trade of the country had recovered from its late depression, that the clothing trade had not arrived at what it was previous to the rebellion, and that the art of making those excellent thick warm coverlets seems to have been lost." The cloth then made is described as "a narrow frieze 20 inches broad; two-thirds of a yard was sold at from 3½d. to 18d., (a great disproportion in price); 17 of these made a man's suit, and 12 a cloak; the export of this article was considered equal to the home consumption." The linen trade again revived, and was encouraged by the Earl of Ossory, at Charleville; several Dutch merchants had embarked in it at Limerick and Clare, and Baron Hartstonque, at Bruff. Cloth baize, stuff, and sheetings, were manufactured at Cork and Bandon; at Clonmel a most extensive manufactory in cloth and stuffs had been established for some years, and gave employment to many hands, its manufacture being equal to the best that England could produce. Lord Dungannon, at Dundalk, had also established the manufacture there; and the Scotch settlers in Ulster applied themselves to the spinning of linen yarn on an extensive scale, which induced great numbers of weavers to locate themselves in that province, and the quality of the linen, which had been originally of a very thin and flimsy character, was now so improved, that it could not be excelled in any part of Europe. From these circumstances the most pleasing anticipations of success were indulged in; but the trade again received a severe check by the recal of the Marquis, now Duke of Ormond, who, during his several administrations, had been its chief patron. Those restrictive laws which succeeded each other with such unceasing rapidity

from a very early period of the reign of that heartless and licentious monarch Charles II. must have operated materially against its extension. England had become envious and jealous of Irish prosperity:—the advances the country had made in its woollen manufacture had particularly alarmed her, and in the annals of no other nation is there to be found a parallel for those arbitrary decrees, aimed at not only the extinction of the woollen manufacture in Ireland, but also of its trade and commerce generally. In 1665, an Act was passed to prohibit the exportation of cattle from Ireland. The 12th of Charles II. c. 4, imposed heavy duties on the importation of Irish woollens into England, which acted as a prohibition. By the 15th Charles II., c. 27, Irish cattle into England, and all exports of value from Ireland to the colonies, were prohibited; the 22nd and 23rd Charles II. forbade the importation into Ireland of sugar, tobacco, cotton, indigo, mahogany, and other foreign and colonial merchandize, unless first unloaded at an English port. Those who succeeded the Duke of Ormond in the government of Ireland, and particularly Caple, Earl of Essex, from 1669 to 1678, discouraged, as much as in their power lay, that branch of native industry, the woollen trade. Sir William Temple, who had some popularity in Ireland, exerted all his talents to persuade the Irish to relinquish it, except in its coarser and cheaper fabrics, and to apply themselves to the linen manufacture, for which the country was particularly adapted; but the Irish rejected his interested advice, and persevered, with renewed efforts, in its continuance: so much so, indeed, that it was scarcely affected by the civil war that ensued between William and James; and after the capitulation of Limerick, many English manufacturers availed themselves of the advantages the country presented—the excellence of its wool, the cheapness of labour and the necessities of life—to settle in various parts of the kingdom. But the independence of Ireland was completely subdued by William's recent successes, and the expatriation of the most spirited portion of those opposed to his rule. It was at this period of prostration that the English parliament, long intent on suppressing the woollen trade of Ireland, addressed the monarch, calling upon him to use his utmost diligence to stop the importation of wool and woollen goods therefrom;

to which William replied, "that he would do all in his power to discourage the woollen manufactures of Ireland, and to encourage the manufacture of linen therein." The Irish parliament, then all subservient to the monarch, passed an act soon after, 10 William III., c. 3, which was well calculated to extinguish the woollen trade; and this was followed up the succeeding year by an Act of the English parliament, which, after reciting "that woollen manufactures of all kinds, made from or mixed with wool, had of late been made, and were daily increasing in Ireland and the British plantations of America, and exported from thence to foreign countries herebefore supplied by England, which will inevitably sink the value of land, and lead to the ruin of trade and the woollen manufactures of the *realm*," proceeds to prohibit, by the imposition of the most exorbitant duties, the future exportation of wool and woollen goods from Ireland or the British plantations to every part of the globe except England, where they were already subject to excessive imposts. Mixing up the British plantations in the enactment was a stroke of policy, to show that the blow was not aimed exclusively at Ireland. But when the meagre population of the English colonies then in America is taken into consideration, and that the cultivation of the land was the principal object of the settlers, and that, consequently, the high price of labour precluded the possibility of any profitable manufacture being carried on there, the device was too shallow to admit of a doubt as to its real intention; and the effect was commensurate with the design, for the provisions of this Act being rigidly enforced, the woollen manufacture not only rapidly declined, but the general trade and commerce of the country was reduced to the lowest ebb. Previous to this reign, the woollen trade was considered the staple manufacture of Ireland, and had been, notwithstanding the attempts of the Stuarts to crush it, carried on extensively in the southern and midland districts, and several of its best fabrics were, from a very early date, in considerable repute among the continental nations of Europe. By the laws now passed, England was secured in the monopoly of this manufacture, and that of linen was extended to Ireland in lieu thereof. Notwithstanding this arrangement, and the immense capabilities afforded by Ireland, as a country so well adapted for

the culture of flax, and, consequently, for the manufacture of linen cloth; the woollen trade was that clearly indigenous to the soil and climate, the former abounding with the sweetest pasturage for the sustenance of large flocks of sheep, and the latter, from its moisture and general salubrity, being admirably calculated for producing wool equal to that of the west of Spain, so long prized for its superior quality. These two branches of manufacture, so intimately connected, instead of being separated, should have been encouraged in the same country where all the elements of production were so favourably disposed towards both. However, as a substitute for the loss of its woollen trade, Ireland was allowed the free exercise of her capabilities for the manufacture of linen. A Board was created, called the Linen Board, with powers to grant bounties on linen exported to foreign countries and the colonies, and on flax seed imported from thence, which was subsequently withdrawn, and extended to seed grown and saved at home. The province of Ulster, under the encouragement thus afforded, applied itself assiduously to establishing this branch of manufacture, and it is astonishing the rapid progress it made within half a century, considering that there was no machinery invented then for the spinning of linen yarn, all the flax being spun by female hands on the old spinning-wheel. Although this was a slow process, yet it was a sure means of employing every individual able to work in a peasant's family; and, consequently, all those who occupied small farms (and they were a numerous class) applied themselves to the culture of flax, and had one or more looms, according to the number of male inmates in every house, while the females were engaged in preparing the flax and spinning the yarn; and thus the whole family was employed: whilst the farm, to the cultivation of which time was also devoted, contributed the means of sustenance to all. Agriculture and manufactures thus went hand in hand throughout the province, and the consequence soon became apparent. Whilst the south and west, which depended chiefly on agriculture, were overspread with poverty, wretchedness, and discontent, the natural result of a redundant and unemployed population, the north was in a state of great prosperity, comfort, and contentment. Belfast, from its eligible situation in respect to the manufacturing districts, and

the enterprising, industrious, and intelligent character of its inhabitants, soon felt the vivifying effects of this happy combination of industrial pursuits. From being an unimportant town, situated in a cove of Carrickfergus Bay, almost inaccessible from its shallow and intricate approach to vessels of any considerable burthen, notwithstanding, soon became the entrepôt for this important traffic; and the linens exported from thence gave it celebrity in the principal markets of Europe and America. In 1713 the export of linen cloth from Ireland was 1,819,816 yards, which increased in 1787 to 30,728,725 yards, the greater portion of which was shipped from Dublin and Belfast; but previous to this period the cotton manufacture had been introduced, and although the foreign export of linen had increased so materially, cotton had been substituted, particularly to the uses which inferior linens had been previously applied to at home. The export trade, however, continued steadily to advance. According to official returns up to 1825, when the trade between England and Ireland was placed under the coasting regulations, and consequently all correct information suppressed as to that trade, the export of linen cloth from Ireland was as follows:—

	To Great Britain.	Foreign Ports.	Total.
Years.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.
1801 . . .	34,622,898	3,288,704	37,911,602
1809 . . .	33,018,884	4,147,515	37,166,399
1813 . . .	35,018,884	3,926,731	38,945,615
1817 . . .	50,290,321	5,940,254	56,230,575
1821 . . .	45,519,509	4,011,630	49,531,139
1825 . . .	52,560,926	2,553,589	55,114,515

As early as 1784, there was paid for brown linens in the Ulster markets alone, £1,214,560; in 1821, £2,538,001; in 1822, £2,677,335; in 1823, £2,411,861, and in 1824, £2,580,667. Since then, however, the power-loom has been in operation, and must have materially affected the independence of the provincial hand-loom weaver.

In 1771, the introduction of the cotton-trade into Ireland was conceived by Mr. Robert Joy, to whom Belfast, in its early exertions in commercial and manufacturing pursuits, has been

so much indebted. His spirit and patriotism were conspicuous in organizing the volunteers of Ulster, by whom he was revered as a father. His benevolence was chiefly instrumental in establishing (in the absence of poor-laws) an asylum in Belfast for the employment and support of the juvenile, aged, and infirm poor. His sagacity, even at that early period of manufacturing cotton in Great Britain, rendered him apprehensive that it would in a great degree supersede the use of linen cloth, the only manufacture then extant in Ireland, and he suggested, as a preparatory step to its introduction, the propriety of employing children in the asylum in spinning cotton yarn. A spinning and carding machine were, therefore, constructed by Mr. Nicholas Grimshaw, an English cotton and linen printer, who had about that period settled in the neighbourhood, and an experienced spinner was brought from Scotland to teach the children. The expense, however, was not paid out of the funds of the institution, but exclusively by Mr. Joy and a Mr. McCabe, who took a warm interest in all his philanthropic proceedings. In 1777, not being able to prevail on the committee of the charitable institution to follow up their views in respect to this manufacture, they formed a company for the purpose, and having acquired the necessary information, they erected a carding machine and a spinning jenny of seventy-two spindles, on the most improved principle then known. These gentlemen were above the paltry consideration of personal gain, their object being to instruct the Irish people in the process of this infant manufacture. They, therefore, exposed their machinery to public view, permitted numbers of persons, even from distant parts of the country, to be gratuitously taught in their establishment, not only spinning, but weaving the yarn into every description of cotton fabric. These operations, although on a small scale, were immensely productive when compared with that of the old spinning-wheel. On their jenny, 72 hanks of yarn were spun weekly, being an increase of 14 to 1; and by their carding machine, 20 pounds of rovings were daily thrown off, being in the proportion of 20 to 1. These beginnings were followed up soon after by Messrs. Nathaniel Wilson and Nicholas Grimshaw: the former adventuring a considerable capital in the speculation, and the latter assisting it with his great practical

knowledge, talent, and industry. In 1784 the first mill for spinning cotton-yarn, and driven by water, was erected by them ; from which period the cotton manufacture might have been considered as firmly established in Ireland. In 1800 it appeared in evidence before parliament, that the cotton manufacture, then so recently introduced, gave employment to 13,500 of the working population, and including all manner of persons variously occupied by it, in a circuit of ten miles round Belfast, to 27,000. In 1825 there were, independent of spinners, 10,700 weavers employed in this trade. As Mr. Joy had foreseen, it had in a great measure superseded the use of linen for many domestic purposes, and the hand-loom in the peasant's cottage, the source of so much rural comfort and independence, was in a great degree silenced by the irresistible influence of the power-loom. In 1828 the cotton-trade in turn was obliged to give way, and the linen-trade was once more revived by the invention of machinery for spinning flax, which was first introduced into Belfast about this period by Mr. Andrew Mulholland, the respected prior of the firm of Messrs. A. Mulholland & Sons, who had been previously extensively engaged in the cotton-trade, but who now directed their attention more particularly to spinning linen yarn. In 1833, however, there were still eight large cotton mills at full work in the town and neighbourhood, but which are now reduced to two, while flax spinning has increased in a tenfold ratio. In 1850 there were 29 mills fully engaged in this manufacture in Belfast, one of which, Messrs. Mulholland's, alone employed 1,300 hands ; and in the whole of these establishments, upwards of 17,000 persons were occupied in spinning. Whitehouse, in the neighbourhood, has also 4 flax mills, Carrickfergus 3, Lisburn 3, Ballinahinch 1, Saintfield 1, Dunmurry 1, and at Bangor there are 2 cotton mills—in all 42 flax and 4 cotton mills, which give employment to about 26,000 of the population in spinning alone ; and it is estimated that, in a circuit of twenty miles round Belfast, there are 40,000 weavers, and upwards of 200,000 females engaged in sewing and figuring light cottons and muslins, principally for the Liverpool and Glasgow markets. There are also 3 large mills for spinning linen yarn, and 1 for spinning tow at Drogheda, and 2 flax spinning mills at Londonderry. At this

period it was calculated that throughout Ireland there were 70 mills and 408,000 spindles in operation in spinning flax, and the improvements since made, and the new mills erected, have increased the number of spindles to 500,000. The amount vested in buildings and machinery, and the floating capital employed in the trade, is considered equal to three millions. In 1840 it was computed that the value of the yarn spun in these establishments amounted to £1,500,000, and that there was paid for labour thereon £208,000. In 1850 the value extended to £1,942,500, and the wages paid to £317,000. A large amount is also paid to the females employed in the light cotton and muslin trade—a branch of industry of only a few years standing, but which has done incalculable good. Without disturbing the arrangements of families, it has contributed materially to the comforts of many. The export of linen cloth and yarn from the port of Belfast for the year ending 5th January, 1850, is estimated at three millions, and the cottons, including sewed muslins, at £800,000; these were principally shipped in the first instance to London, Liverpool, and Glasgow, where assorted cargoes are prepared for our colonies, the United States, South America, and the Pacific; and orders have been recently received for supplying the German and Spanish markets, particularly with linen yarn. Notwithstanding this immense exportation, a comparatively small quantity of either manufacture is shipped direct from Belfast to foreign ports. By parliamentary returns for the year ending 5th January, 1850, it appears that there were exported foreign from all the Irish ports, only 11,557 lbs. of linen yarn, and 342,620 yards of linen cloth entered by the pound and yard, and by valuation to the extent of £1,894: the linen taken at 11½d. per yard, the average price, deduced from a report made by Mr. Porter in 1850, at a meeting of the British Association, would make, including that entered at a valuation, £17,954. 6s. 3d.; and the average price of the yarn from the same authority, at 12½d. per lb., would be £601. 18s. 6½d., amounting in all to £18,556. 4s. 9½d. Within the same period, there were entered of cotton manufactures 596,082 yards, and otherwise, to the value of £192, which at an average of 9d. per yard, would amount to £22,545. 1s. 6d. There was no cotton yarn exported or

imported during that year to or from foreign ports, and only 95,164 lbs. of raw cotton imported direct. If there were no other arguments to show the necessity of a Transatlantic Packet Station on some part of the Irish coast, these statistics are quite demonstrative. If such a communication was opened with America, it is more than probable that in a very short time assorted cargoes would be made up at Belfast, and the heavy expense of freight and charges on linen and cotton goods, now obliged to be sent to British ports for that purpose, would be saved, as well as the certainty of dispatch secured to the Irish manufacturer. Belfast would, also, in course of time become a mart for the sale of cotton wool, and the expense of transmission from an intermediate port be avoided. It appears that Great Britain and Ireland exported to the colonies and foreign countries in 1832, 49,531,057 yards of linen, valued at £1,716,084, which was extended in 1838 to 77,195,894 yards, valued at £2,717,979; in 1844 it reached 91,233,754 yards, and £2,801,609; and in 1849 it had increased to 106,889,558 yards, and amounted to £3,073,903. During the same period, the export of linen yarn to foreign ports, which amounted only to £8,705 in 1832, advanced to £737,650 in 1849. In 1852, the official value of the linen exported foreign, amounted to £3,759,405, and of linen yarn to £1,157,971; and in 1853, the value of the linen was £4,395,310, and of the linen yarn £1,160,170, being an increase on the linen of £615,805, and on the yarn of £2,199, over the export of the previous year. In twenty years the export of the former increased 256½ per cent., and the latter 157½ per cent. These exports consisted, principally, of Irish manufacture, the greater portion of which were originally shipped at Belfast, and the residue at Londonderry, Newry, and Drogheda. The bounties on the export of linen cloth finally ceased in 1832, and the home-market was secured to the manufacturer by heavy import duties on the foreign article. Mr. Porter gave a comparative sliding-scale of the prices of linen in 1832 and in 1849, by which it appears that the characters rated at from 1s. 4d. to 2s. 5½d. per yard in 1832, were sold in 1849 at from 8½d. to 1s. 3½d. a yard. If this scale is correct, there has been a reduction in seventeen years of nearly 50 per cent. on the article; but if the declared

value of the linen exported from 1832 to 1850 can be at all relied on, the decline has not been so considerable as represented. The average of that shipped in 1832 and 1838, was only a fraction over $8\frac{1}{4}$ d. a-yard, while the most inferior on the scale is stated at 1s. 4d. per yard. The linen exported in 1844 was only a fraction over $7\frac{1}{4}$ d., and in 1849, it barely averaged 7d. a-yard; taking the export value as a standard, the decline would only be 15 per cent. : but probably the more correct inference to be drawn from those discrepancies is, that the exports have been estimated considerably under their real value by the shippers.

The manufacture of cambric handkerchiefs is only of modern date, but as their price gradually declined from the commencement, it has gone on extending; and the handkerchiefs are so much improved in quality, that they have not only superseded those of France, so long unrivalled in every market in Europe, but are now imported into that country, and, after paying an enormous duty, are sold lower in Paris than those manufactured there. Instances have also occurred where they have been reimported into London, subject to another duty, and sold there as French cambric handkerchiefs. Ordinary Irish handkerchiefs, which in 1833 cost 8s. 3d., fell in 1838 to 7s., and in 1848 to 2s. 10d. per dozen; and those of superior quality from 35s. to 28s., and then to 18s. per dozen, being nearly a reduction of two-thirds the price on the former, and one-half on the latter article, in the course of fifteen years. Notwithstanding these immense reductions in prices, the consequence of an improved system of spinning, it is gratifying to find that they have been accomplished without any distress, injury, or loss to any of those engaged in this manufacture; but, on the contrary, the linen trade has been prosperous beyond all precedent—is extending daily, and giving useful and remunerative employment to a large portion of the population. Great efforts have been made at Manchester, Glasgow, and Dundee to rival the Irish in this branch of national industry, but they have signally failed, and it may be fairly inferred, that linen cloth and yarn to the amount of £4,500,000 of the £5,555,480, the total estimated value of these articles exported from the United Kingdom in 1853, to foreign countries, has been manufactured in Ireland.

Some years ago the bleach-greens in the vicinity of Belfast and Lisburn were very numerous and extensive. It was estimated that one of them, at least, bleached and finished annually 80,000 pieces of cloth. But since the improvement in machinery and chemical preparations for the purpose, they are less numerous. Machinery was first invented and applied to washing and beetling cloth at Ballydrain, near Belfast. Dr. James Ferguson received from the linen board £300 for the successful application of lime in the process of bleaching; he also introduced, in 1770, the use of sulphuric acid. In 1780, pot-ashes were first used; and in 1795, chlorate of lime. Barilla, pot-ashes, chlorate of lime, vitriol, and soda, are still used for the purpose.

THE SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING THE CULTIVATION AND IMPROVEMENT OF FLAX IN IRELAND.—In connexion with the linen manufacture of Ireland, this national and important society was formed in Belfast, in 1841, the object of which was to encourage and instruct the rural population of Ireland in the proper mode of cultivating and preparing flax on the most improved principle, and for which the soil and climate are so peculiarly adapted. Although Ireland during the last century had been an extensive flax-growing country, yet there was much connected with the pursuit that the Irish cultivator was either ignorant of, or indifferently acquainted with. The society, therefore, commenced their proceedings by procuring intelligent and experienced instructors from Belgium, where its culture and manufacture had been long attended to with more than ordinary care, and the consequence of which had been the production of the finest flax in Europe. Those instructors made great improvements in the selection of the soil, the sowing of the seed; in steeping, scutching, and otherwise properly preparing the article for market; but these operations were confined to the province of Ulster, and not even there were they on a very extensive scale for some years. That the Irish agriculturist should be so indifferent or indisposed, until very recently, to turn his attention to the growth of flax, is not at all surprising, when it is considered that he could command an exclusive market in Great Britain for his cereal produce; and that in respect to flax, he was obliged to

meet the foreign article in the home market, on the importation of which there were neither impost nor prohibition, and the expense of transport trifling, in comparison to grain. But as soon as the corn-laws were repealed, which deprived him of that exclusive market, and that he could not attempt to compete with the foreigner there, from a variety of causes, the most serious of which are the high rents and taxes the land is still subject to, and the humid atmosphere of Ireland, so prejudicial to the cultivation of wheat, but so beneficial to that of flax, he naturally directed his attention to the latter crop; and, consequently, a greater extent of ground in Ireland (and particularly in Ulster) has been occupied with it since then, than previously. The other provinces, too, have evinced a disposition to take advantage of the encouragement that Government has afforded by a grant of £1,000 a-year, since 1847, in aid of the funds for extending the cultivation of flax in the south and west. But, notwithstanding the growing favourable disposition of the Irish agriculturist towards the cultivation of this crop, the importation of foreign flax into the ports of the United Kingdom has increased considerably since the introduction of flax spinning machinery into Ireland. For the five years ending the 5th January, 1835, when its operation was only in its infancy, it averaged about 47,500 tons annually; for the succeeding five years it was 61,027 tons; in 1845 it was 67,675 tons; and for the five years ending 5th January, 1850, the average was 68,879 tons per annum; and in the year 1850, it exceeded 90,000 tons. The exact quantity of home-grown flax produced is difficult to ascertain, but it appears from Major Larcom's Report, that in 1847 there were 58,312 acres under flax in Ireland; in 1848 there were no returns; in 1849 it had increased to 60,014 acres—which, taken at an average of five cwt. to the acre, would make the entire quantity consumed in the United Kingdom 15,000 tons, being only the one-sixth of the foreign importation. Since then the number of acres under cultivation for flax was 91,040 in 1850, and 140,536 in 1851, being an increase in two years of 80,522 acres, or 134 per cent. To exclude the foreign article from the markets of Great Britain and Ireland, it would require about 300,000 acres more than were under cultivation in 1851. Although a considerable increase was expected in

1852, the number of acres was only 137,008, being a decrease of 3,528 acres on the preceding year. Every county in Ireland was deficient, with the exception of Armagh, Down, Louth, Tyrone, King's County, and Kerry; in the three first counties there was a considerable increase. In Antrim, the decrease on 1851 was 2,594 acres, or 21 per cent.; and in Londonderry, 1,322 acres, or 7 per cent. The extra produce, however, of the flax crop of 1852, has more than made amends for the diminished area cultivated: the average returns make it $41\frac{1}{2}$ stones per acre, being an increase of $2\frac{1}{4}$ th stones per acre, or 1,601 tons over 1851. One of the principal causes why flax is not more generally cultivated in many districts is, the want of scutching-mills; although the deficiency in Antrim, cannot be accounted for in that way. Some progress has been made in supplying this defect. In 1852 there were, in Ulster, 926 scutching-mills, with 4,722 stocks; in Leinster, 19 mills, with 134 stocks; in Munster, 15 mills, with 152 stocks; and in Connaught, 6 mills, with 45 stocks: with the exception of Ulster, the other provinces can be scarcely said to have any accommodation of this kind. It is calculated that these mills give employment to 15,000 persons in the least active part of the year, and that their yearly earnings amount to £160,000. In 1853 there were 175,495 acres of flax cultivated, being an increase of 38,487 acres, or 29 per cent. on the previous year; the increase in Leinster, Munster, and Connaught being 22 per cent., and compared with 1848 would be 536 per cent.; but the produce of this crop is not at all equal in quality to that of 1852. The anticipations that Irish flax of certain qualities would be sought for export both to Great Britain and the Continent, have been realized: of the produce of 1852 there were exported from Belfast, Londonderry, and Newry, 6,696 tons of flax, and 2,308 tons of tow, valued at £292,500, being an increase on both, since 1850, of 5,844 tons. The export to France was 413 tons; and even Belgium, so long famed for its improved cultivation, took a small quantity of the Irish produce. The imports, however, of foreign flax have been very considerable; for the first nine months of 1853 they amounted to 62,264 tons, or 20 per cent. on the preceding year. But the progress of flax-spinning has been so considerable in Ireland, and also in Great Britain, that the market

is by no means overstocked with the raw material of either home or foreign growth. The disposition now exists, or at least did exist in 1852, with the Irish farmer to cultivate this crop. The high prices which he obtained for his cereal produce of 1853 may induce him to turn his attention from it for a season, but he must return to it again; and to enable him to prepare such a crop for market, scutching-mills are absolutely necessary in every district. The low price of agricultural produce for some years previous to 1853, and the other difficulties the tenant farmer had to contend with, deprived him of the means of erecting such mills. It is, therefore, clearly the duty of the landlords, and their interest also, to erect scutching-mills on their various estates, and moderately charge for forwarding the raw material through this stage of preparation. Among other considerations, it would be the means of enabling them to obtain their rents with more facility. When the proper arrangements are made, and a fair supply of flax can be calculated on, there is not a sea-port in Ireland in which purchasers would not be found, not only to supply the demand for home consumption, but also for export to England and Scotland. It must be remarked, however, that there is a disposition latterly among the English farmers to cultivate this crop, but the landlords in general are opposed to it, under the impression that it exhausts the soil too much. On this subject, it is as well to observe that there is much difference of opinion as to flax being a crop more calculated to exhaust the soil than wheat, or other cereal produce: and it is now ascertained, that if the water in which the flax is steeped be discharged on the land, it contains all the elements of reproductiveness and fertility.

The prohibitory laws enacted in the reign of Charles II., which deprived the Irish of the right of exporting their cattle to England, and compelled them to trade only with the colonies through the medium of an English port, had the most baneful influence on the commerce of the country during the latter part of that monarch's reign. The short parliament assembled in Dublin in 1689 by James II. took measures to render these and other oppressive Acts for that time a nullity, and the consequence was, that, although a civil war raged in the country, its commerce improved. Ireland,

however, was a doomed nation! The successful monarch, the English and the Irish parliaments, all combined to annihilate the growing manufacturing and commercial prosperity of the country. The obnoxious laws of Charles II. were now enforced with rigour, and the 10th of William III., c. 3, confirmed them, and rendered the prohibitory clauses still more penal than they originally were. It was at this period that Molyneux, representative of Trinity College, wrote a pamphlet, "The Case of Ireland," which, although ordered by the English parliament to be publicly burnt by the hands of the common executioner, had made a strong impression on the Irish people; and his principles were espoused by Swift and Lucas, and subsequently advocated by Grattan. It was the Acts passed in this reign against the commercial intercourse of Ireland with other countries, combined with the 6th George I., c. 5, confirming Poyning's Act in all its native deformity, that elicited from Grattan the declaration, that "had he lived when they were enacted, he would have made a covenant with his conscience to rescue his country from the ignominy of such acts of power; or, if he had a son, he would have administered to him an oath that he was to consider himself as expressly set apart for the discharge of so important a duty." Had Grattan, however, lived in the time of William, his eloquence or his threat would have made but a slight impression on the will of that monarch. Sarsfield, after blowing up his heavy artillery at Ballymedy, or the volunteers in arms, to whom the country was absolutely indebted for free-trade and legislative independence, were much more likely to deter him from his evil designs upon Ireland. And they did prevent, in the orator's own time, as foul an attempt on the trade of the country as any that had preceded it. The Irish, deprived of their cattle-trade, had recourse to curing their beef and pork at home, with which the British colonies in America and the West Indies were supplied. In 1776, England attempted to wrest this trade from Ireland also, by laying an embargo on the export of salted provisions. The first relaxation of the commercial penal code which had paralyzed the intelligence and enterprise of Ireland for a century, was the adoption of two resolutions by the Irish parliament in 1780—to the effect, that the free exportation of its woollen manufactures gene-

rally, and liberty to trade directly with the British colonies in America, Africa, and the West Indies, would tend to relieve Ireland, and be productive of great commercial benefit—which were passed into a law the following session by the English parliament. The country was now allowed to trade foreign, but a century had passed away, during which her jealous rival had enriched herself, while Ireland, depressed and impoverished, had to meet her teeming with capital in the foreign and home markets, and had to compete with crippled means for superiority in several branches of commercial and manufacturing industry; but with what success the experience of the last half century too clearly demonstrates. The foreign commerce of Ireland, in comparison, until very lately, scarcely deserves the name. The woollen manufacture, once so prosperous, has shown no symptoms of resuscitation. Agriculture, to which her energies during a long protracted war have been more particularly directed, may have realised fortunes for many who had long leases at low rents, and who had the prudence to remain at home. But such persons could not be induced to embark their surplus capital in commercial or manufacturing pursuits; their taste, experience, and the certainty that it was secure when invested in land, predominated over every other consideration. This feeling was not confined to the agricultural community: the Irish merchant and tradesman who had realized a few thousand pounds, also looked to the land for investment, and retired from business at the very time that an Englishman would only consider himself in a position to enter upon it with success. Another class of men, with enterprise and commercial ability, have attempted much that would have proved beneficial to the country, but for want of capital, or sustentation from capitalists, have almost invariably failed in their efforts; while the population went on daily increasing, and from the land alone its occupation and maintenance was solely derived. This was the state of Ireland for near a century, during which England was employed in manufacturing for the universe, and obtaining in return for her articles of industry, not only the choicest products of foreign countries, but the precious metals to an immense amount. England was thus enabled to sustain a debt unexampled in the annals of the world, and to dissipate the calculations of the most

eminent writers on financial and political economy, who have so often predicted that it would end in national bankruptcy long since, but which has been obviated by the success of her manufactures generally, and of the cotton-trade in particular, the extent and prosperity of which it was then impossible for them to foresee.

The people of Ireland stood passive all this time, with folded arms, looking on with great complacency and satisfaction at the prosperity of their neighbours, and idly dreaming that a portion of this accumulated capital would find its way into their own neglected country, so admirably calculated for manufacturing purposes. But after half a century idly spent in expectation of their hopes being realized, these golden visions have at length vanished. Never was there a greater delusion than to suppose that the manufacturers of England, reaping a plentiful harvest at home, would, from philanthropic motives, or pure love of Ireland, remove their establishments, or create a competition there that would endanger their original investments. With few exceptions indeed, the only Englishmen who have entered the Irish arena of trade were connected with English houses, and went there, not to establish manufactures, but to purchase its agricultural produce, to feed the population profitably employed on manufactures at home, and thus depriving the Irish shipper of his commission or profits on such transactions.

It has been generally admitted that the term between 1782 and 1800 was one of unmitigated prosperity to Ireland, and that the carrying of the Act of Union militated seriously against it. With the dawn of free-trade, Ireland unquestionably rose in wealth and importance; commerce, manufactures, and agriculture progressed materially. The Irish nobility, and many of the English too, possessing large estates in Ireland, were resident, or at least spent a considerable portion of their time in the country, and expended their large revenues in it, encouraging improvements, and fostering an attached and industrious tenantry. No standing army or police were then necessary to preserve the peace. The influence of the volunteers had suppressed crime; general taxation was light, and local assessments scarcely known; religious prejudices were gradually giving way to more enlightened and liberal ideas, and every thing tended to render the Irish an united and happy people. If, however,

the amount of imports and exports is a fair criterion to judge of the prosperity of a country, the statement that follows, giving the particulars of the principal articles that constitute both for twenty years previous and subsequent to the Union, demonstrates that a considerable improvement had taken place in the subsequent period: the imports having, in some instances, doubled, as in drapery; and trebled, as in tea and cotton yarn. In the exports, too, there was a considerable increase, particularly in linen cloth, bacon, butter, and grain; and in spirits no less than 1,300 per cent. But these returns were, no doubt, furnished to support the opinions of certain advocates for the legislative Union, as wine, the consumption of which was as likely to show the means of the country, if progressing, as correctly as any other article, has been excluded altogether. The import of wine in 1799, was 1,238,512 gallons, and it has gradually decreased since then to 512,319 gallons in 1848, about which quantity still continues to be consumed annually. The trade of the country, also, for the last seven years of the former period, must have been considerably affected, as men's minds were almost solely occupied with the great revolutionary changes that had taken place in France, and the political events at home, which led to the rebellion of 1798.

Articles Imported into Ireland for 10 years previous, and 10 years subsequent, to the Union.

IMPORTS.	Years. 1781 to 1800	Years. 1809 to 1831
Drapery yds	23833381	48692058
Sugar, raw . . . cwt.	3796285	6089175
Do. refined . . . "	149513	490815
Tea lbs.	22711224	66847251
Coals tons	6413557	10897970
Iron cwt.	3917882	5530682
Flax Seed . . . hds.	837746	934049
Cotton Wool . . cwt.	199751	538542
Tobacco lbs.	99402762	116112836
Cotton Yarn . . lbs.	4551336	19995350
Timber tons	298981	490245
Hats No.	152866	1387209
Hides, undressed . "	84287	450031
Hops cwt.	295234	400701
Hosiery pieces	3606074	7995640
Oak Bark bales	2224655	2550853
Barilla cwt.	2122932	2182060

Articles Exported from Ireland for 10 years previous, and 10 years subsequent, to the Union.

EXPORTS.	Years. 1781 to 1800	Years. 1809 to 1831
Linen Cloth . . yds.	678798721	832403860
Butter lbs.	5777566	7915949
Pork barrels	2164608	2665408
Wheat bushels	1334567	4223782
Barley "	1027323	1842993
Meal & Flour . cwt.	747674	1686948
Candles "	117276	205958
Pigs No.	70272	687569
Oats barrels	7650359	16112142
Bacon flitches	1013552	6248527
Horned Cattle . No.	802287	747815
Spirits galls.	79892	10349752
Lard cwt.	80974	31867
Soap "	92616	219506
Copper Ore . . . tons	9923	30243
Feathers cwt.	28167	106307
Kelp tons	31224	64731

The difficulty that exists in obtaining correct returns of imports and exports between Great Britain and Ireland is very great; in fact, it is an impossibility to procure them since 181 when the trade between the two countries was placed under the coasting regulations, as there are no accounts kept at the English or Irish custom-houses of goods imported duty free from Great Britain, either as relates to British productions or foreign merchandize. For this state of things the country is indebted to Lord Monteagle, who takes merit to himself for having established a system which gives great facilities to merchants and brokers on both sides the channel in the dispatch of their custom-house business; and as far as that is a consideration, there can be no doubt the change has operated favourably; but his lordship is obliged to admit "that the country has sustained the loss of many most important statistical and commercial facts absolutely necessary to ascertain the relative condition of the two countries towards each other. It can be no longer seen if the consumption of the comforts and necessities of life, as imported, is progressive or falling off, or calculate the precise amount of revenue contributed by Ireland." And his lordship further states, "that in and out of office, he endeavoured to ascertain whether such information could be obtained under the new regulations, but he was assured it could only be had by requiring entries and other formalities, as under the old." The Channel trade being principally carried on by steamers, dispatch is absolutely necessary, and therefore a recurrence to the old system of entry or other tedious process is out of the question. But without in the slightest degree interfering with the dispatch of such vessels, an account of all the imports and exports into and from the Irish ports could be obtained, and their value more correctly ascertained than formerly. What is to prevent his lordship from introducing a short Bill to compel the agents of all steamers to make returns at the custom-houses of the several Irish ports weekly, monthly, or quarterly, of the various commodities imported and exported, and their value, according to the average prices of such articles at the time they are shipped or received? Every article is entered in the steamer's papers, and the agent could prepare these returns at his leisure. The same regulation could be made applicable to sailing

vessels; or, as the same expedition is not required with them, on entering inwards or clearing out, the description of cargo and its value could be ascertained. The only official returns that can be obtained of the imports and exports of the most considerable articles of consumption and manufacture for the last six years are here given.

Official returns of Articles entered for home consumption in Ireland, for the six years commencing 5th January, 1847, and ending same date, 1853.

Years ending 5th Jan.	Wine, Galls.	Spirits, Foreign, Galls.	Tobacco, lbs.	Tea, lbs.	Coffee lbs.	Sugar Raw, Cwts.	Refined Sugar, Cwts.
1848..	512,319	210,205	5,101,139	6,513,853	1,739,046	596,607	494
1849..	549,755	209,665	5,138,314	6,713,272	1,313,951	507,967	2,900
1850..	524,662	255,476	4,737,267	6,383,316	1,013,399	460,665	5,148
1851..	516,735	213,468	4,604,083	6,410,263	745,958	455,307	5,544
1852..	499,131	202,498	4,457,980	6,573,278	684,840	438,873	28,828
1853..	523,228	211,397	4,473,600	6,904,412	720,967	435,413	36,302

	Flax Seed, Bushels.	Cotton Wool, lbs.	Silk, Raw & Thrown, lbs.	Iron unwrought, Tons.	Gross Timber, Loads.	Timber, sawn or split, Loads.	Deal Ends & Battens, Hundred.
1848..	113,011	77,894	78,827	60,048	23
1849..	184,239	1,038,016	11,621	23	92,515	82,109	55
1850..	203,832	95,164	54,413	61,259	23
1851..	254,233	6,034	..	174	64,612	57,667	30
1852..	333,412	5,138	..	7	78,175	75,776	27
1853..	262,770	439,162	1,393	142	59,392	67,542	..

These, although articles of general consumption, do not, by any means, embrace the whole of the Irish imports of foreign produce: the official returns are deficient in giving any account of the flax, hemp, tallow, barilla; the foreign grain and flour, which comprised so extensive a portion of the imports of the country since 1847; and of many other articles of general consumption. The account of the articles that follow is also deficient in giving any information in respect to the quantities of linen cloth and yarn, butter, beef, pork, and bacon, and other commodities, shipped to Great Britain, which could be more easily obtained at the several custom-houses than those of cattle, grain, flour, and meal.

Articles exported to Great Britain and Foreign Parts for the six years ending 5th January, 1853.

Years ending Jan. 5.	Gt. Britain. Ox & Cows, Number.	Gt. Britain. Sheep, Number.	Gt. Britain. Swine, Number.	Gt. Britain. Wheat & Flour, Qrs.	Gt. Britain. Oats & Oatm. Qrs.	For. parts. Linen Cloth, Yards.
1848..	189,960	342,179	106,407	221,936	723,542	1,416,614
1849..	196,042	255,862	110,787	318,426	1,591,875	1,571,173
1850..	201,811	241,061	68,053	249,489	1,077,364	342,620
1851..	184,616	176,945	109,170	168,726	1,055,388	262,751
1852..	183,760	151,807	136,162	95,116	1,141,976	50,961
1853..	201,470	158,020	151,895	52,724	1,650,313	64,343

Years ending Jan. 5.	For. parts. Linen Yarn, Cwts.	For. parts. Cottons, Yards.	For. parts. Butter, lbs.	For. parts. Beef & Pork, Barrels.	For. parts. Bacon & Hams, Cwts.	For. parts. Whisky, Galls.	For. parts. Horses, Number.
1848..	155,358	281,003	11,084	942	1,061	260	7
1849..	18,720	719,343	14,374	479	577	10,231	1
1850..	11,557	596,082	22,636	494	417	58,680	1
1851..	138	716,346	21,179	1,354	475	33,474	5
1852..	8,668	191,066	22,180	1,853	1,119	8,687	70
1853..	3,920	136,151	28,412	1,393	845	21,931	42

In the absence of a more effective system of keeping the official accounts of the trade between Great Britain and Ireland, the tonnage of the vessels entering inwards and clearing out of the several Irish ports, will best show whether the trade of these ports are progressing or declining. The following returns show an immense and progressive increase in the general trade of the country even to the present day. A statement of the number and tonnage of the vessels entering inwards, and clearing out of the aggregate ports of Ireland for twenty-five years, commencing the 5th January, 1816, and ending same date, 1840.

Five Years.	INWARDS.		OUTWARDS.		INCREASE.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1816 to 1820	53,479	4,714,740	49,824	4,522,590
1821 to 1825	57,838	5,223,660	48,421	4,382,532	2,956	368,862
1826 to 1830	66,971	6,625,092	43,619	4,778,687	4,331	1,797,587
1831 to 1835	77,078	7,861,338	50,654	5,768,536	11,142	2,226,095
1836 to 1840	87,117	9,078,099	52,333	6,480,692	11,718	1,928,917

Increase since 1816..... 301,476 6,321,461
or 68 per cent. on the tonnage.

The tables that follow have been arranged from parliamentary returns obtained by Mr. T. M'Cullagh, late M.P. for Dundalk, whose eminent services in the last parliament entitles him to the gratitude of the great majority of his countrymen. They show the state of commerce during the five years preceding the failure of the potatoe crop in 1846, and the five years that succeeded it, and, notwithstanding the failure of this crop for four successive years, from 1846 to 1850, and that famine, pestilence, and emigration had diminished the population so awfully, the commerce and customs revenue of Ireland had increased even beyond all former precedent. It is, indeed, a strange anomaly to find, that under the pressure of such complicated evils, the country should evidence by these statistics unmistakable symptoms of progressive prosperity. It may be said, it is true, that the increase in the foreign trade has been produced by the famine, a great portion of the shipping entering inwards from foreign ports being freighted with bread stuffs, four of the five years comprising the latter period, and cannot be relied on as permanent; and that the excess of the foreign tonnage outwards had been occasioned by an export, which, instead of being regarded as a proof of prosperity, was the greatest calamity that could befall a nation: the emigration of a great portion of the most useful and industrious of its population to foreign lands. Notwithstanding that there is much truth in these deductions, there appears to be, independent of the foreign trade in grain and emigrants, a steady and gradual increase in the other branches. The trade with Great Britain, for instance, had increased enormously, although little or no wheat or oats were exported thence from the western ports, which formerly employed a number of vessels in the transit of the latter product; yet the exports from the other Irish ports, particularly from Belfast, have been of the most valuable description, and have increased considerably even since the date referred to, and are likely to do so for years to come.

THE AGGREGATE IRISH PORTS.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of these Ports, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years.

Years ending January 5th.	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Annually in these Ports.		Customs' Duties gross amount.			
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.										
	British.		Foreign.		Total.	British.		Foreign.		Total.	British.		Foreign.		Total.	British.		Foreign.		Total.						
	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.		Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.		Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.		Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.						Vess.	Tonnage.
1841.....	868	167975	225	31004	1094	198979	29135	1864808	91320	2063787	644	144824	173	25409	817	170233	12534	1266851	13351	1437090	1969	183854	2135667			
1842.....	881	176977	197	26441	1078	203418	19061	1783006	20139	1986424	610	148747	133	20933	763	169700	13163	1293729	13926	1463429	2016	193807	2236749			
1843.....	822	164887	133	17731	955	182219	19628	1880386	2069003	2062903	583	140922	111	16629	696	162651	11696	1237864	12392	1400315	2025	201794	2214966			
1844.....	827	164837	115	16622	942	181479	19127	1834048	20059	2015327	592	131024	95	14391	597	148415	12968	1376087	13565	1524502	2002	198469	2169668			
1845.....	929	198560	142	18881	1071	207441	20230	2008504	21301	2215945	624	159117	72	9876	696	168993	13684	1518514	14380	1687507	2033	206813	2246629			
1846.....	4327	892857	813	110679	5140	973536	98182	9571052	103322	10344588	2965	782734	604	87258	3569	819992	64045	6693045	67614	7513043	10045	986467	11105709			
1847.....	1039	248435	180	26345	1259	274780	21492	2183588	22731	2458368	693	186784	147	22775	840	209559	14361	1640732	15501	1850291	2139	224859	2323802			
1848.....	1240	295643	378	76266	1618	311909	22812	2447907	24430	2789816	935	224396	264	51660	1199	294596	12252	1617037	13451	1911663	2251	276966	2485669			
1849.....	2109	330067	1153	240288	3262	633355	29251	2183658	25513	2817013	1685	369273	904	198923	2589	559196	11357	1488626	13946	2047822	2319	265556	2719066			
1850.....	1312	284194	602	110157	1914	394351	21242	2241032	23186	2753383	817	221840	437	78863	1254	310703	13068	1642531	13323	1933234	2347	269742	2285195			
5 years 45 to '50	1677	317707	769	166427	2446	464134	29032	2292533	22478	2726667	916	236921	670	124362	1586	365863	11370	1643093	12956	2007076	2333	267682	2163874			
5 years 5 to '10	7427	1510046	3082	596483	10560	2108329	103829	11418718	116538	13527347	5046	1261454	2422	476583	7468	1738037	61408	8033049	68876	9770086	11389	1275575	11533476			
5 years 10 to '50	4327	892857	813	110679	5140	973536	98182	9571052	103322	10344588	2965	782734	604	87258	3569	819992	64045	6693045	67614	7513043	10045	986467	11105709			
10 years 40 to '50	11754	2372903	3865	702162	15649	3082065	204011	20789770	216660	23871835	8011	1994188	3026	568841	11037	2556029	125453	14725504	136590	17283139	21434	2362042	22638185			
Increase.....	3100	647189	2269	487804	5369	1134953	7647	2047666	13016	3182659	2081	528720	1818	389325	3899	918045	9837	1339004	1262	2257043	1344	289108	426767			

These Tables show that during the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered these ports from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 8,082,065 tons, of which 709,162 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 30,789,770 tons: total amount inwards being 38,871,835 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 2,558,029 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 683,841 were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 14,725,094 tons: the total amount outwards being 17,283,129 tons. There were registered during same period 21,434 vessels of 3,292,042 tons; but 2333 vessels of 207,462 tons comprised the whole shipping of Ireland; and the Customs' duties amounted to £22,638,135. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five years that preceded them, there was an increase in the Foreign trade inwards of 1,134,993 tons, and from Great Britain and Coastways 2,047,660 tons: total increase inwards being 3,182,659 tons, and outwards to Foreign ports 918,045 tons, and to Great Britain and Coastways 1,369,004 tons; the proportion of Foreign compared with British shipping engaged in the Foreign trade of these ports was 5.94 per cent., and the trade itself had more than doubled. On the registered shipping there was an increase of 800 vessels of 59,069 tons, or 28½ per cent. and in the Customs' revenue of £426,707, or 82½ per cent.

Towards the increase, exhibited in the foregoing Tables, the several Irish Ports contributed thus:—

PORTS.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping.		Customs' Duties.	
	Foreign Trade.	British and Coasting Trade.		Foreign Trade.	British and Coasting Trade.		Incr. Tons.	Decr. Tons.	Incr. £	Decr. £
	Incr. Tons.	Incr. Tons.	Decr. Tons.	Incr. Tons.	Incr. Tons.	Decr. Tons.				
Belfast	146112	650716	..	140219	449633	..	24313	36366
Coleraine ..	3869	50932	..	2930	45684	840	..	747
Cork	244446	172850	..	160091	169190	..	8056	..	54231	..
Drogheda ..	8147	320228	..	5914	236817	..	2320	..	36178	..
Dublin	174191	434614	..	162278	367741	..	8174	..	133294	..
Dundalk ..	12480	102236	..	8059	90850	..	1148	..	79364	..
Galway	57909	18385	..	55081	..	35887	1828	..	50917	..
Limerick } and Tralee }	201328	71911	..	168269	..	6527	821	..	166585	..
Londonderry	57582	208529	..	39896	143231	..	169	..	31214	..
Newry & Strangford }	5029	55608	..	11223	..	1107	3053	17842
Skibbereen..	4066	11174	..	5230	..	16479	..	345	669	..
Sligo and Ballina }	57395	65037	..	49760	..	13011	1338	2096
Waterford..	88498	..	54291	48390	..	43483 1094	3022	118732
New Ross ..	34955	2414	..	36243	5344
Westport } & Newport }	27682	12575	..	21930	..	23861	50	..	19359	..
Wexford ..	11304	..	75252	7542	..	22593	618	..	30739	..
	1134993	2177209	129543	918045	1503046	164042	60254	1175	602550	175783
Deduct decr.	..	129543	164042	..	1185	..	175783	..
Net increase.	1134993	2047666	..	918045	1339004	..	59069	..	426767	..

All these ports have increased considerably in their Foreign trade for the five years ending January, 1850, most of them doubling, Limerick trebling, and Galway, Westport, and Newport quadrupling their tonnage on the five preceding years. In the Foreign shipping there is an immense increase as regards them all: proceeding from two causes—the alteration in the navigation laws, and the number of Foreign vessels dispatched in the urgency of the moment from those ports abroad which supplied the country in its exigencies with food. The trade with Great Britain and Coastways also shows a large increase, to which Belfast has contributed nearly one-third, and Drogheda stands pre-eminently in advance of all the other ports, having increased 78 per cent. on

this branch of its commerce. Dublin, Cork, Londonderry, Dundalk, and Coleraine have all increased on their tonnage inwards and outwards, while Limerick and Tralee, Newry, Sligo and Ballina, Galway, Westport and Newport, New Ross, and Skibbereen, increased in their tonnage inwards, but exhibit a decrease in it outwards; while Waterford and Wexford have seriously decreased both inwards and outwards to the extent of nearly 100,000 tons in each port; and in the customs' duties of Waterford there is a *deficit* of no less than £118,732, although aided by the excess of revenue produced by the rapidly improving port of New Ross, which the official returns, for some unaccountable reason, have included with Waterford, as well as Tralee with Limerick, Ballina with Sligo, and Strangford with Newry, as there are distinct custom-houses at all these places, for which returns should be furnished separately. With the exception of Coleraine and Skibbereen the registered shipping of all the other ports have materially increased. Belfast and Sligo have decreased slightly in their customs' revenue, and Newry more considerably. What is very unaccountable and quite unexpected, connected with these statistics, is the fact, that where distress and misery prevailed the most, there the excess of customs' revenue was greatest, and where the population were best employed, there a diminution took place. Limerick, in the immediate neighbourhood of that appalling Union, Kilrush, contributed more to the surplus than any of the other Irish ports, not even excepting the capital; Cork, too, and Skibbereen in the South, and Westport and Newport in the far West of famished Mayo, have all assisted to increase it; while Belfast, Coleraine, and Newry in the North, towns but partially visited with the calamities that devastated the South and West, and Belfast in particular, where unparalleled prosperity was said to exist, and where it really did exist, have all decreased in their customs' revenue on the five years ending January, 1850, as compared with the five preceding years.

By official returns, moved for by Mr. G. Bowyer, M.P. for Dundalk, and printed by order of the House of Commons, 16th May, 1854, the tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of

the aggregate Irish ports, as well as that of the registered shipping belonging thereto, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, stands thus:—

Years.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tonnage.
	Foreign Trade.	Brit. & Coast.	Tonnage.	Foreign Trade.	Brit. & Coast.	Tonnage.	
1851..	246,192	166,417	2,494,732	165,123	146,670	1,777,264	261,432
1852..	306,013	269,134	2,570,112	212,982	233,731	1,838,822	262,411
1853..	286,708	181,229	2,580,791	168,955	155,372	1,913,844	254,997
1854..	235,596	237,499	2,902,292	144,370	219,105	2,107,605	259,364

It would therefore appear, that the Foreign trade of these ports in 1851 was 724,401 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 4,271,996 tons. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 1,028,860 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 4,408,934 tons, giving an increase on the former of 304,459 tons, and on the latter 136,938 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 792,264 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 4,494,635 tons, leaving a *decrease* of 236,596 tons on the former, and an increase on the latter of 85,701 tons. In 1854 the Foreign trade was 836,570 tons, and the British and coasting trade 5,009,897 tons, giving an increase on the former of 44,306 tons, and on the latter of 515,262 tons; being the greatest year of trade, if tonnage is to be taken as a criterion, that Ireland ever enjoyed. The registered shipping, which consisted of 2333 vessels and 267,682 tons in 1850, decreased in 1851 to 2249 vessels of 261,432 tons, which further declined in 1854 to 2219 vessels and 259,364 tons, being a decrease in four years of 114 vessels and 8318 tons; a decrease that it is impossible to account for on rational grounds, as, during that period, the shipping interest of the United Kingdom enjoyed unprecedented prosperity. It, however, clearly shows, that although the general commerce of the country increased so considerably, the ships by which it was carried on belonged to other countries, of which the Foreign trade of 1854 affords a demonstrative proof. Of the 836,570 tons which comprised it, 456,604 tons were Foreign, and exceeded not only the Irish, but also the tonnage of the British shipping united, having engrossed 54½ per cent. of the whole Foreign trade of the Irish ports.

In the registered tonnage of 1851 and 1852, that of the

steamers of the following ports is included, which then comprised the entire Steam Navy of Ireland:—

	1851.		1852.	
	Steamers.	Tonnage.	Steamers.	Tonnage.
Belfast	9	1,292	9	1,292
Cork	21	4,859	23	4,885
Drogheda	5	1,787	5	1,787
Dundalk	3	1,024	2	844
Dublin	46	11,776	44	11,353
Limerick	1	300	1	300
Londonderry	6	1,720	4	1,339
Newry	2	603	2	603
Sligo	1	44	1	44
Waterford	20	4,924	19	5,165
Wexford	1	228
	115	28,557	110	27,612

An Account of the gross Customs' Duties collected at the several Irish Ports, for the four years commencing 5th January, 1851, and ending 5th January, 1854:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Dublin	£374,943	£393,363	£912,443	£932,529 8 0
Belfast	352,658	369,146	377,329	395,496 18 8
Coleraine	6,535	6,733	6,080	6,905 1 11
Cork	246,463	236,531	231,395	237,928 0 0
Drogheda	12,234	11,676	18,935	16,744 18 8
Dundalk	38,956	38,846	28,807	26,297 15 4
Galway	30,035	28,568	26,461	26,090 8 8
Limerick	160,179	159,431	155,088	162,770 17 11
Londonderry	108,194	110,535	116,799	123,224 15 10
Newry and Strangford..	34,356	36,632	37,619	35,361 10 5
New Ross	22,067	21,417	22,187	24,073 13 7
Skibbereen	783	910	867	1,084 10 7
Sligo and Ballina	25,489	27,051	25,556	23,707 6 2
Trillick	1,531	3,582	4,318	9,565 19 10
Waterford	114,821	101,139	93,586	96,459 18 5
Westport and Newport..	10,167	9,264	7,149	7,073 10 11
Wexford	16,333	14,715	16,650	15,711 12 8
	£2,095,744	2,069,559	2,080,469	£2,141,026 7 7

Although the average amount of the customs' duties for the last four years is under that of the five years ending January, 1850, the increased tonnage employed in every branch of commerce in these ports, shows clearly, that, with the exception of Cork, Dundalk, and Waterford, all the others are progressing. The decline

in the Dundalk customs is but slight; Cork is something more considerable; and Waterford exhibits a serious falling off, its customs' revenue having decreased £77,304, or 40 per cent. in six years. Belfast, as might be expected, is in the ascendant, and Londonderry, Drogheda, and Tralee, show considerable animation.

Since the famine of 1847, Ireland has become a considerable importing country for grain, and particularly for Indian corn. Some idea may be formed of the extent of the trade since then, from the following returns of the imports and exports of the various kinds for eighteen months, commencing January, 1852, and ending 30th June, 1853.

	IMPORTED.		EXPORTED.
	From Foreign Ports. Qrs.	From Great Britain. Qrs.	From Ireland to Great Britain. Qrs.
Wheat and Flour.....	1,397,897	416,481	87,554
Barley and Barleymeal	46,052	26,414	138,627
Oats and Oatmeal	2,510	11,903	2,534,818
Indian Corn and Meal.....	1,882,721	219,084	1,331
Eye, Peas, Beans, Bere, Beg, &c. ..	28,446	4,740	47,938
Malt.....	..	7,180	16,463
	3,357,626	658,802	2,826,721

Ireland, therefore, during that period imported 1,179,707 quarters of bread-stuffs more than it exported, a considerable portion of the exports consisting of oats and oatmeal, and the imports of Indian corn, and showing that numbers of the Irish people are still living on the cheapest and coarsest food.

The trade between Great Britain and Ireland under the present system, can only be collected from the tonnage returns already given. Even up to the restricted time, it is very doubtful that the accounts were kept correctly, or the proper value placed on the various commodities which constituted the trade between the two countries. A disposition certainly existed in official quarters to lessen as much possible the value of exports from Ireland to Great Britain; but it cannot be denied that these exports, previous to the abolition of the Corn Laws, were very extensive, and must have exceeded the imports considerably in amount. The exports, too, were of a very different description to the imports: the first were composed of the most substantial necessities of life, the latter included the most inferior cottons, woollens, hardware, and other articles of English manufacture.

For fifty years Ireland had an exclusive market in Great Britain for its cattle, beef, pork, butter, bacon, wheat, oats, malt, flour, meal, &c.; nothing could have served the landed proprietor more, unless the establishment of manufactures at home, which would have saved him the expense of freight and other charges on these articles in their transit to Great Britain. But although of great advantage to him, it operated against every other portion of the community, and against none more vitally than the labouring peasant. Three-fourths of Ireland being without any manufactures calculated to employ even a fractional part of the population, the land was looked to as the means of supporting the whole; low prices were consequently what best suited a population so circumstanced. An exclusive market at hand where people were well employed, and could afford to pay high prices for the necessaries of life, not only deprived him of them, but raised the value of land, and consequently the price of the potatoe, the only description of food that did not undergo exportation, and on which he was solely obliged to rely for existence.

In 1830 a Committee of the House of Commons was appointed to inquire into the state of the poor in Ireland, Mr. Spring Rice, now Lord Monteagle, in the chair; a variety of accounts and tables were prepared of the public income and expenditure of Ireland, from 1792 to 1830. Among others the following returns were furnished:—

YEARS.	Exports to Great Britain.	Imports from all parts.
1801	£3,270,350	£4,621,344
1809	5,316,557	6,896,821
1813	6,746,353	7,797,286
1817	4,722,766	5,646,563
1821	5,338,838	6,407,427
1825	7,048,936	8,596,786
	£32,443,800	£39,966,226

If these returns are correct, then the imports of Ireland have exceeded its exports by £7,522,426 on the 6 years; and if they are a fair average of the other 18 intermediate years, Ireland must have paid £80,089,704, being the balance of trade against her, less whatever she may have derived from foreign trade, which

must have been very trifling. In addition to which, during these 24 years there were not less than two millions a year remitted to non-resident landlords, which shows that it must have had internal resources beyond all other nations. But that this could not be, is demonstrated by returns subsequently obtained by the Irish Railway Commissioners, showing the value of the exports from Ireland to Great Britain for the year 1835 to be £17,394,814, and its imports from all parts £15,337,077, and this would be a more likely way to account for how those large sums which were annually remitted to absentee landlords and mortgagees were provided.

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1784, two years after Ireland obtained free trade, its national debt amounted to £1,997,417; in 1793, ten years having elapsed, it only rose to £2,219,694; in 1799 it was £13,427,026; and in 1800 it amounted to £25,293,679—making an increase in one year of £11,866,653, which was, no doubt, appropriated to the most corrupt of purposes by the government, to enable it to extinguish the legislative independence of Ireland, which it then but too successfully accomplished. By the Act of Union, which came in force in January, 1801, it was provided, that all debts previously incurred should be separately defrayed, and that for 20 years subsequent thereto, the contributions of Great Britain and Ireland respectively, towards the expenditure of the United Kingdom, should be in the proportion of as 15 to 2, and that all monies raised after the Union should be jointly borne by the respective countries in the same proportions. The total funded debt of Ireland in January and February, 1801, was £27,792,975, and of Great Britain £488,205,923. In January, 1843, the funded debt of the United Kingdom was £774,859,379: there would have, therefore, accrued since the Union £286,653,456, two-seventeenths of which would be £33,723,936, which, with the debt of £27,792,975 due by Ireland at the time of the Union, would make its fair proportion £61,516,911, and the yearly interest thereon would be £2,153,091. Notwithstanding, in the accounts that follow, Ireland is charged in 1853 with £4,173,458 interest, under the 56 George III., c. 98, which consolidated the debt of Ireland with that of Great Britain.

An Account of the Net Produce of the Revenue of Ireland, paid into the Exchequer for 13 years, commencing 5th January, 1841, and ending same date, 1853.

Years ending 5th January.	Customs.	Excise.	Stamps.	Post Office.	Miscellaneous.	Other Monies.	Repayments of advances for Public Works.	TOTAL.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1841 ..	1930159	1177407	432722	6064	6929	5581	353638	4013100
1842 ..	1999257	1097918	425771	..	7411	5835	433441	3969696
1843 ..	1949834	1110342	495851	3000	5248	2216	371878	3934369
1844 ..	1960498	1082722	521981	3000	5059	1677	384794	3959731
1845 ..	2126149	1147940	515898	16000	6590	2683	420470	4265730
1846 ..	2091651	1408471	558569	22000	6347	9816	381938	4478792
1847 ..	2258043	1467060	673767	29000	6063	5888	352642	4692463
1848 ..	2209133	1152932	567996	59000	5698	46160	484924	4525843
1849 ..	2069773	1321915	532924	39000	4835	2000	304927	4275374
1850 ..	1941122	1231548	502073	26000	6633	3928	621155	4332459
1851 ..	1827289	1312123	402891	..	5744	6063	505021	4118931
1852 ..	1854268	1348911	451534	5000	9000	4470	327499	4000682
1853 ..	1856160	1478092	474374	..	7732	3829	466329	4286516

An Account of the Monies expended for the Army, Ordnance, and other Establishments in Ireland; also the Annual Charge for the Consolidated Debt of Ireland as it stood 1st February, 1817, showing the total aggregate charge and payments into the Exchequer, and the Amount received each Year from the British Exchequer to make good the aggregate charge for 13 years, commencing 5th January, 1841, and ending same date, 1853.

Years ending 5th January.	Army.	Ordnance.	Miscellaneous.	Consolidated Fund, Civil List included.	Exchequer Bills paid off.	Advances out of the Consolidated Fund for Public Works.	Interest on the Funded Debt of Ireland as it stood 1 Feb. 1817	Total amount of charge of Ireland.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1841 ..	897500	122155	351539	588969	..	329509	4281593	6571265
1842 ..	946000	110420	331739	575982	..	300359	4260596	6525695
1843 ..	973500	97050	398504	586909	..	370322	4260596	6650880
1844 ..	994500	84870	332683	561329	..	350804	4260595	6584781
1845 ..	1183780	93460	375529	585350	..	443830	4176458	6858405
1846 ..	1124555	90950	384512	601062	..	569705	4176458	6947242
1847 ..	1143980	105000	569504	902856	..	1650214	4176458	8547912
1848 ..	710000	91850	1936662	848667	..	5390333	4176458	13153970
1849 ..	625000	31400	811786	949207	..	940738	4176458	7534589
1850 ..	626000	..	565903	939322	..	832246	4176458	7139929
1851 ..	785000	..	664049	909886	..	728272	4176458	7263615
1852 ..	585000	..	611382	854272	..	300493	4173458	6524605
1853 ..	535000	..	676456	881392	200000	199181	4173458	6665487

It will be seen by the foregoing tables, that, although there is credit given for the different sources of revenue, the sums neither correspond with the gross or net amount, and that they are merely specified as paid into the Exchequer on account. For instance, the gross Customs of 1853 amount to £2,080,469, and the net to £2,076,978, against which the sum brought into the Exchequer is given as £1,856,160—there is no explanation in the accounts to show how the difference has occurred. In the same year the net amount of the Excise is returned as £1,632,302 18s. 2d., and the sum brought into the Exchequer against it is £1,478,092. It is stated somewhere, but not in the account, that the collection of the Customs cost £9 19s. 7d. per cent., and the Excise £8 16s. 2d., and although it does not exactly make up the difference, it is the only way of accounting for it; but why is this not simplified and placed on the face of the proper account? The persons employed in collecting the customs in Ireland do not appear to be taken as good care of by government as their brethren in Great Britain. In 1849, there were 6,480 persons employed in the Customs in England and Wales, who were paid £550,236; the duties collected were £18,345,374. In Scotland there were 1,103 persons so employed, who were paid £62,115, and the duties collected £1,955,906. In Ireland there were 1,352 persons employed, who were paid £57,903, and the duties collected £2,180,058. The average salary in England and Wales is, therefore, £84 18s. 3d.; in Scotland £55 8s. 1d., and in Ireland £42 16s. 8d.; and 1,352 officers in Ireland are paid £4,212 less than 1,103 in Scotland receive, although the sum collected in Ireland was £224,152 more than in Scotland. The Excise is collected in sixteen districts, viz.: Athlone, Bandon, Belfast, Birr, Coleraine, Cork, Drogheda, Dublin, Foxford, Galway, Limerick, Londonderry, Naas, Sligo, Waterford, and Wexford—the net amount for the year ending the 5th January, 1851, was £1,486,512 18s. 4d.; for 1852, it was £1,515,961 2s. 11d.; and for 1853, £1,632,302 18s. 2d. There are thirty stamp districts, and the net amount received in 1851, was £495,759; in 1852, £486,201; in 1853, £509,132: the cost of collection being £3 1s. 8½d. per cent. The following articles have

contributed to the excise for the six years ending 5th January, 1853:—

	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Spirits	983,618	1,095,684	1,050,875	1,110,570	1,147,099	1,245,177
Malt	200,629	233,381	202,817	230,950	205,917	226,217
Licenses	98,550	100,311	96,829	100,776	105,564	109,289
Paper	37,645	37,124	40,225	43,755	47,202	46,824
Game Certificates ..	8,231	11,166	9,062	9,670	9,298	9,998
Post Horse Licenses	2,081	1,920	2,171	3,048
Sugar	9	78

The distillation of whiskey in Ireland has always been looked to by the government as the means of furnishing a considerable portion of the revenue extracted from that country. From the capital required to establish a distillery under the operation of the present excise-laws, none but the wealthiest part of the community can well embark in it. It is true, that for many years several Scotchmen have been engaged in the pursuit, many of whom came to Ireland with mediocre means. But their experience of the trade, their economical habits, and the encouragement given to strangers by almost every class of Irishmen, to the prejudice of their own countrymen, soon pushed them forward, and at Dublin, Drogheda, Dundalk, Limerick, and other places in the south, some of the most extensive establishments in Ireland are in their hands. Illicit spirits were formerly distilled in Ireland to a considerable extent; and previous to the 31st December, 1831, fines of £50 were inflicted on the town-lands for every illicit still found thereon. This tended to enrich the excise-officer and the informer at the expense of the agricultural community, and affected the interest of the landlords so much, that the 1 & 2 Wm. IV., c. 55, was passed, which relieved them from the infliction. Previous to 1835, the duties on whiskey varied from 2s. 4½d. to 6s. 1½d. a gallon, but it was then reduced to 2s. 4d. a gallon: it being long a received opinion, that the higher the duty imposed, the more encouragement it gave to illicit distillation, and that it was not so productive to the revenue as when at a reduced rate. This has been clearly demonstrated from the fact, that, for the five years from 1813 to 1818, both inclusive, when the duty was at the highest for the last

half century, ruling at 5s. 1½d. to 6s. 1½d. per gallon, it only amounted to £5,581,734 18s. 2d., and for the five years from 1835 to 1839, when the duty was at the lowest, say 2s. 4d. a gallon, it produced a revenue of £7,146,419 0s. 2d. The present Chancellor of the Exchequer (Gladstone), who has visited Ireland with such a considerable portion of his new imposts, and among others, has laid an additional duty on whiskey, will find himself much disappointed in his calculations, particularly if the coming crops of barley and oats are abundant. Low prices and high duties will again induce the rural population to turn their attention to illicit distillation. A considerable falling off took place in the consumption of whiskey, in Ireland, from the year 1839, which was about the period that Father Mathew commenced his holy crusade against intemperance. The distilleries, which had continued increasing up to 1840, and were then ninety-four in number, declined in 1847 to forty-nine; and the quantity of spirits distilled, which had increased to 11,894,169 gallons in 1836, declined to 5,737,617 gallons in 1847, being a decrease of 6,156,482 gallons. The Irish population having now become comparatively temperate—a considerable portion of that spirit which formerly met so brisk a sale at home, is now obliged to be sent to England for a market: during the seven years from 1844 to 1850, the export there averaged 1,027,429 gallons per annum. The following shows the quantity of proof spirits imported into England, Scotland, and Ireland, from each country respectively:—

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.
From Ireland to England....	890,021	823,138	976,997	1,258,993
„ Scotland to do.	2,651,529	2,623,656	2,553,995	2,267,419
„ do. to Ireland ..	766,405	915,657	971,339	1,008,857

The following is the quantity of proof spirits charged with duty for home consumption in the three countries for the years 1852-3, ending 5th January:—

		1852.				1853.			
Duty	gal.	Gallons.	£	s.	d.	Gallons.	£	s.	d.
England	.. 7/10	9,695,368	3,758,185	16	0	9,820,608	3,846,404	16	0
Scotland	.. 3/8	6,830,710	1,252,296	16	8	7,172,015	1,314,869	8	4
Ireland	... 2/8	7,550,518	1,006,735	14	8	8,208,256	1,091,434	2	8

The post-office does not now contribute much to the revenue, but it is of immense utility and convenience to the public. The receipts in 1841, the year after Mr. Rowland Hills system came into operation, was £129,918; they have gone on increasing, and were in 1852, £200,262, but this was collected at an expense of £92 4s. 2d. per cent.: the cost of conveying the mails by railways, and the numerous establishments obliged to be supported, and other heavy outlays, amounted to £192,667 6s. 1d. In 1839, previous to the penny stamp being resorted to, there was delivered in one day, (24th November,) 179,931 letters, and in 1853, (same date,) they amounted to 772,215. The number of money-orders issued and paid by the Irish offices in 1841, was 125,170—amount £215,383, and the number paid was 158,651—amount £245,888. In 1852, there were issued 393,879 orders—amount £656,111, and paid 526,233—amount £730,400. The expenditure, which is now paid out of the consolidated fund, is appropriated to four classes. Annuitants and pensioners receive £40,206 5s. 4d. Salaries and allowances amount to £80,522 7s. 0d. The courts of law and equity, police, &c., absorb £753,264 14s. 9d.; and miscellaneous items £3,467 1s. 11d.—in all, £880,460 9s. Among the annuitants and pensioners is to be found the name of the Prince of Mecklenburg Strelitz for £1,788 4s. 4d. It would be a difficult matter to ascertain what services he rendered Ireland, or what connexion he has with that country to entitle him to be placed on its pension list, and for no trifling sum either—no doubt it is a corrupt affair at bottom. There are many other objectionable items on the list, too numerous, indeed, to admit of their being discussed here. In 1843, out of eighty-two persons who were paid salaries, pensions, &c., to the amount of £88,512 7s. 10d. out of the consolidated fund, only thirty-six, receiving £19,556 6s. 8d., were Irishmen, of whom four, with £4,980 were Catholics: the remainder, and considerably the larger sum, was received by Englishmen, who filled the most important places of trust and emolument.

An Account of Monies advanced by way of Loan, out of the Consolidated Fund for the following uses, and the Repayments made thereon, and the Balances due 5th January, 1853.

Purposes for which Advances were made.	Advances to 5th January, 1853.			Repayments to 5th January, 1853.			Balances due Consolidated Fund, 5th January, 1853.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Boards of Health	274,358	15	4	272,490	17	1	1,867	18	3
Gaols, Bridewells, & Lunatic Asylums	1,979,963	14	11	1,591,298	7	10	388,665	7	1
Building & Repairing Schools	10,293	5	7	8,786	11	4	1,506	14	3
Commissioners of Drainage for preliminary Inquiries ..	23,500	0	0	8,500	0	0	15,000	0	0
Commissioners of Fisheries for ditto	500	0	0	..			500	0	0
Commissioners of Wide St., Dublin	263,624	3	11	19,631	14	5	243,992	9	6
Improvement of the River Shannon	313,019	16	8	283,426	6	2	..		
Improvement of Landed Property	1,330,000	0	0	259,618	13	6	..		
Kingston Harbour	218,769	4	7	47,668	7	7	171,100	17	0
Police	3,519,671	10	9	3,489,569	2	1	30,102	8	8
Roads, Bridges, and Turnpike Trusts	416,492	15	3	360,593	13	5	55,899	1	10
Public Works	2827,451	3	4	1,384,613	2	11	..		
Relief of Trade	178,076	7	7	127,928	12	8	50,147	14	11
Suitors' Fund, Court of Exchequer	27,660	4	1	..			27,660	4	1
Relief of the Poor in Distressed Districts	5,529,632	15	8	868,818	7	7	..		
Tithe Computation	279,451	2	7	51,724	6	6	227,726	16	1
Valuation, Lands, and Tenements	310,123	1	4	246,671	10	2	63,451	11	2
	17,502,588	1	7	9,021,340	3	3	1,277,621	2	10

Of these sums advanced to encourage public undertakings and works of national utility, the payments have been very considerable: even £868,817 7s. 7d. has been paid out of £5,529,632 15s. 8d., which was all that was expended out of the eight millions voted for the relief of the Irish poor. Those (and there are many) Englishmen who entertain an impression that the word loan as applicable to Ireland, is synonymous with that of gift, may perceive by this account, how well the repayments have been kept up, and how little remains due. Loans granted by government for English purposes are not so regularly paid.

BANKING.—Previous to 1782, the banking business of Ireland was carried on by private individuals. By an Act of the Irish parliament, 21 & 22 George III., c. 16, passed in that year, the Bank of Ireland was formed, and in May, 1783, a charter defining its privileges was granted for ten years, and fixing the 1st January, 1784, as the day when those who had previously subscribed were to be formed into a corporation, to be entitled “The Governor and Company of the Bank of Ireland.” It opened for business, however, at Mary’s Abbey, Dublin, in June, 1783. Its original capital was £600,000 Irish, which was lent to government at 4 per cent. The Bank of England, established since 1694, with all its imperfections, was taken as a model. The undertaking was not generally popular, and eighteen months elapsed before the subscription list was filled. In 1791 the charter was extended by the Act 31 George III., c. 22, which authorized an augmentation of £400,000 capital; this sum was subscribed, but not lent to the government, the bank having paid it £60,000 for the accommodation. By the 37 George III., c. 50, the capital was raised to £1,500,000, and the increase lent to government. In 1808, by the Act 48 George III., c. 103, the capital was still further increased £1,000,000, and £1,250,000 advanced to the government. This act extended the charter to 1st of January, 1837. The Act of the 1st & 2nd of George IV., c. 72, empowered the bank to extend its capital to £3,000,000 Irish, or £2,769,230 15s. 6d. English, which is the present capital of the bank, of which £2,630,769 English currency has been lent the government. By this last Act, the government agreed that Bank of Ireland notes should be taken in payment of the revenue, and the bank consented to rescind powers that it had under former acts, to prevent throughout Ireland companies of more than six persons from issuing notes payable on demand, and confined the restriction now to within fifty miles of Dublin. For many years the government had been paying heavy interest on the loan it had contracted with the bank: on £1,615,384 12s. 4d., it paid 4 per cent.; and on £1,015,384 12s. 4d., 5 per cent. The Act 8 & 9 Victoria, c. 37, which in a great degree regulates the present system of banking in Ireland, very properly deprived the Bank of Ireland of the privilege of being the only bank of issue, with more

than six partners in Dublin, or within fifty miles of it, and reduced the interest on the government debt to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.—the public business to be transacted without any charge for the future; and extended the charter to the 10th of January, 1855. The bank was empowered to advance money on goods deposited with it, and sell the same within three months, if not previously redeemed; and, contrary to the legitimate purposes of banking, to receive, purchase, and retain landed property, and to sell the produce of the lands in its possession. It was forbidden to borrow more than the amount of its capital, or pay or charge more than 5 per cent. on its transactions, under penalties of three times their amount: and by the original charter, the private property of the co-partners was made liable to the debts of the company in proportion to their subscriptions. Notwithstanding the moderate character of these restrictions, the bank did not adhere to them; but frequently extended their issues beyond the amount of capital, and charged 6 per cent. interest, and have not been sued for the penalties incurred. In 1797 the Bank of Ireland, like the Bank of England, was exempted from paying in gold: its circulation then only amounted to £621,917; in 1808, it was £2,827,000; in 1810, £3,157,300; in 1813, £4,212,600; in 1821, £5,182,600; in 1825, £6,309,300. A bonus of £125,000 to the holders of bank stock was the immediate consequence of its being relieved from paying its paper in gold. In 1803, the dividend, which had been as low as $2\frac{3}{8}$ per cent., rose to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and a bonus of £75,000, being 5 per cent. on the capital, or $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest on the year. Bonuses continued to be paid to 1815, when the dividend was regulated at 10 per cent. In 1821 the dividend was 11 per cent., and a bonus declared of no less than £500,000. All the monetary transactions of the bank, from its formation to 1826, was in Irish, and subsequent thereto in English, currency. The large income possessed by the bank enables it to maintain a liberal establishment. Its expenses for the year ending 30th of June, 1836, were—for pensions and salaries, £52,641; rent in Dublin, £8,000; contingent expenses in Dublin, £8,666; rent and contingencies connected with country agencies, £6,772; paid directors, £5,077; printing bank notes, &c., £1,396; annual payment to government,

£2,067; to a government officer, £80; lost by fraudulent transfers of government stock, £5,520: total, £90,212. Although the capital of the bank had been intended by various Acts of Parliament to be raised to the extent of three millions, it does not appear that more than one million was paid up, and that stock to the amount of two millions had been created out of the profits of the company. From its formation, the Bank of Ireland has enjoyed uninterrupted good fortune and prosperity. In 1837, little more than half a century from that time, the million originally embarked, actually produced £19,434,406, viz.: £2,000,000 of bank stock created; £8,775,306 annual dividends as per bank returns; £1,225,000 bonuses; and £7,634,100 in gold and silver, and invested in securities. What service did this company render the nation for the immense monopoly it enjoyed so long? Its available assets in 1837 amounted to considerably more than seven millions; of which there were employed in Dublin £1,100,000, and in the provinces £1,400,000—only one-third was actually appropriated to the purposes for which the bank had been originally created. By returns furnished by the bank for the year ending 30th of June, 1836, it appears that its profits amounted to £369,220, of which only £111,423 was for interest on bills discounted, and £257,797 was derived from dividends on government and other securities locked up in its coffers. It is not surprising, therefore, that Ireland progressed so little since she obtained free-trade in either commerce or manufactures, when this cormorant establishment monopolized so long the sole control of the circulating medium, and the other monetary resources of the country. There never existed a corporation with such immense powers at its disposal that effected so little good: circumscribed, sectarian, selfish, and grossly ignorant even of the rudiments of banking, this corporation, during the existence of its charter, and after its renewal a second time by the united parliament, took the most effectual means of restraining the enterprise and industry of the nation. For forty years it was not the Bank of Ireland, but the Bank of Dublin; its paper, although forced on the Irish people by Act of Parliament, and for a considerable portion of the time was constituted a legal tender in every transaction, yet its accommodation did not extend beyond the circular

road, and even within the prescribed limits of the metropolis none but partisans of the ascendancy faction were admissible as directors, or could obtain even mediocre accommodation in their business. Although often solicited to accommodate with branches of its establishment those commercial towns which, by its charter, were deprived of the power of banking for themselves, it invariably refused, and thus imposed an immense tax on all persons trading to any extent in these places, as no bills were negotiable that were not made payable in Dublin, and heavy commissions and other charges were paid to agents there for attending to these transactions. But in 1825, when branches were established in these places by the Provincial Bank of Ireland, which the illiberal and unaccommodating spirit of the parent bank in Dublin had called into existence, it was obliged, in self-defence, to establish them—certainly forty years too late to save the country from the spurious circulation, and disastrous consequences entailed on it by its culpable neglect. Notwithstanding the opinion of the late Sir Henry Parnell, (who was looked upon by some writers as a kind of oracle in finance,) “That it was the increased issue of the Bank of Ireland which caused the exchange between England and Ireland to rise to 17 and 18 per cent., and originated those evils which resulted from the failures of the private banks subsequently.” It is evident, however, that it was not an over-issue of paper that created the financial disorganization that ensued, but the want of a sound and a sufficient circulating medium, which the Bank of Ireland had then alone the power of dispensing. High prices, the natural consequences of a prolonged war, for almost every article of traffic required an enlarged circulating medium, and as the country could not obtain it in a genuine form, its necessities compelled it to take what answered its immediate purpose. The best proof that can be adduced of Ireland requiring a much larger circulating medium than it possessed, is to be found in the numerous private banks of issue that succeeded each other; and although they commenced failing at an early period, and that the people lost heavily by their notes, they, notwithstanding, continued to accept in payment the issue of every new establishment, for want of a better and more substantial currency. No doubt there was over-

trading, and much fictitious credit introduced by the facility with which this private paper was obtained. But had the Bank of Ireland, at the commencement of the war, established branches in the several commercial towns, and regulated their business on sound banking principles, increasing their capital, and extending their issues, many of those fragile banks that gave way both north, south, and west, would never have had existence, and the loss that the country sustained, probably to the extent of twenty millions by their failures, would have been saved. The number of private banks in 1800, was 11, which increased in 1803 to 30, and in 1804 to 50. In 1812, with the exception of 19, they had failed or discontinued business: still others had entered the field, and there were in that year 33 banks in full operation; all, however, have been since swept away, with the exception of three in Dublin, Messrs. Latouche; Balls & Co.; and Boyle, Low, Pim & Co. Some of those who failed for the largest sums were Cotter & Kellet, and S. & T. Roche, of Cork; Maunsel, of Limerick; Rial, of Clonmel; Colclough, of New Ross; French & Co., Alexander & Co., of Dublin; and above all Williams & Finn—who deserve especial mention from the circumstance, that although they failed for £300,000, they never, during the whole period of their banking, were worth £1,000. It is also to be considered, that during the progress of these events, there was no metallic currency in the country of any moment; gold in a great measure had disappeared; guineas were at a premium of 5·10, and at one time 20 per cent.; the silver shillings and sixpences left in circulation, were a kind of counterfeits, composed of tin and copper, slightly coated over to give them the appearance of silver, and the copper coin was equally spurious. These even disappeared, and a kind of small paper-money called a ticket, or I. O. U., that ranged in nominal amount from threepence to six shillings, were issued by merchants, shopkeepers, and others, in any kind of credit, and when they amounted to a pound, if presented, were paid by them. These petty bankers have been estimated at 295, but they must have doubled that number throughout the country. This currency, although fictitious, and objectionable in a variety of ways, yet it enabled the people to carry on their business, which, without some such medium, it was impossible

to transact. These were succeeded by a silver issue of the Bank of Ireland, called tokens, of the value of fivepence, tenpence, and six shillings, the latter being originally a Spanish dollar, worth four shillings and sixpence, extended in circumference, and bearing the impression of the bank as an I. O. U. for six shillings.

The first joint-stock banking company formed in Ireland was the Hibernia Banking Company, which had its origin in the illiberality displayed by the Bank of Ireland towards the mercantile and trading Catholic community of Dublin. It was formed in 1824 by an Act of the 5th Geo. IV., which met with considerable opposition in its progress through parliament. Its capital is one million, in 10,000 shares of £100 each, £250,000 of which has been paid up. The deed of settlement is dated 11th April, 1825, and is signed by 1,063 proprietors, and it entered on business in June the same year. It was intended originally as a bank of issue, and those who negotiated with the Treasury the terms on which it was to be established were led to believe that an alteration in the law would take place, so as to admit of its having a bank-note circulation; and considerable discontent and disappointment was the consequence of its not being realized. The Act was generally regarded as mutilated, and deviating from its original purpose, and though assuming to be an Act to authorize banking, yet in it there is scarcely a word to be found about banking or the discount of paper from beginning to end. The directors, to realize the advantages of a bank of issue, in 1827 issued tokens on printed unstamped paper, the same size and having the appearance of a bank-note; in it there was, however, no promise to pay, it was merely entitled "Hibernia Bank token—One Pound," and signed by two bank clerks, and dated in the usual form. It was construed by the law not to be a note, but the Bank of Ireland effectually opposed its circulation, and the interference of the government, shortly after, led to its being discontinued. This still further augmented the discontent of the proprietors, who taxed the directors with breach of faith, and with having established the bank for their own personal accommodation. A Bill was actually submitted to the House of Commons to dissolve the Company, on the grounds that the Act under which it was formed merely authorized it to grant loans and annuities,

but not to bank. This Bill, however, was fortunately either lost or withdrawn, otherwise the benefits which unquestionably resulted to Ireland from joint-stock banking might have been seriously interfered with in its infancy. The Hibernia Bank, although it does not issue notes, has been extremely prosperous. From 1827 to 1838 it divided 4 per cent., in 1839 $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., from 1840 to 1851 5 per cent., and since then 6 per cent. The net profits for 1853 was £14,701 13s. 11d., after deducting the charge of management. It has branches in Drogheda and Mullingar. The accounts are audited and submitted to a board of management every year: it allows no interest on balances, but pays $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on all sums deposited over three months. The Provincial Bank of Ireland commenced operations by opening a branch of its establishment at Cork, in September, 1825, and in 1836 it had thirty-three branches, all issuing notes. It had no central office in Ireland, the management being carried on in London, which gave the Bank of Ireland a pretext for pronouncing it anti-national, and the liability of the proprietors under the Act of formation, 1 & 2 Geo. IV., was also questioned. But the 6th Geo. IV., c. 42, which explained former Acts, and regulated the system of joint-stock banking in Ireland, dissipated its jealous and interested insinuations, and the Provincial Bank progressed in utility and prosperity. Its capital is two millions, in 20,000 shares of £100 each, on which £25 has been paid, with the exception of 411, which were forfeited. The directors are allowed £5,000 a year by the deed of settlement, but it has been so arranged that no director shall receive more than £250 of it. From 1838 to 1847, it has divided 8 per cent. per annum, and in 1842 and 1847, it paid two bonuses of 4 per cent. in addition. On 31st March, 1852, it divided 8 per cent., and had, as a rest, undivided profits to the amount of £73,636 11s. 0d. The net profits for the year ending 31st March, 1853, were £58,511 4s. 5d. There had been established at Belfast, long previous to the idea of joint-stock banking being entertained as suitable to the necessities of Ireland, three private banks, the Northern, Belfast, and Commercial Banking Companies, which rendered immense service to the infant trade and manufactures of that town; and not confining their operations thereto, they established agents in Newry, Dundalk, and other towns which

came within the range of the Bank of Ireland monopoly. These banks stood the shock of all the panics, and not only honourably discharged their engagements to the public, but some of the proprietors retired on large fortunes. The Northern Banking Company was the first to take advantage of the favourable disposition of parliament towards the establishing of joint-stock banks in Ireland. Its capital is £500,000, in 5,000 shares of £100 each, 4889 of which have been allotted, and £25 a share on them paid up. The deed of settlement is dated in August, 1824, and was signed by 264 proprietors. The bank claims ten shares, and a lien on all other shares, for any debts due to it by the proprietors. It commenced business in December 1825, and in 1836 had ten branches in other towns in Ulster. Its notes are made payable only where issued, but they are paid at the central office, at all the branches, and by the Bank of Ireland. Previous to 1835 no interest had been allowed on accounts current, and only $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on deposits, but since then $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest is allowed on balances of three months' standing, and 3 per cent. if they remain for six months and upwards. It divided up to 1835, 5 per cent. and two bonuses of £2 19s. 1d. and £4 per share. In 1835 it paid 6 per cent., in 1836, 7 per cent., in 1837, 8 per cent., in 1838, 9 per cent., and from 1839 to 1853 it paid 10 per cent. and £5 bonus added to the capital. In 1835, for the first time, it formed a rest of £49,590; in 1844 it was £36,276; in 1846 it was £44,830; and in 1852, £59,581. In 1827 the Belfast Banking Company followed in the steps of the Northern, and became a joint-stock company, with a capital of £500,000 in 5,000 shares of £100 each; all of which has been issued, and £25 per share paid up. The deed of settlement is dated 2nd July, 1827, and is signed by 337 proprietors, and it commenced business 1st August, 1827. The bank held fourteen shares in trust, and three as securities for advances. In 1837 it had 20 branches situated within 96 miles of Belfast, which issued notes that are paid on the same principle of the Northern Banking Company. In 1836 there was a bonus of £20,000, which has been since increased to £37,500. From 1827 to 1835 it divided 5 per cent., from 1836 to 1846, 6 per cent., and from 1846 to 1854, 8 per cent. per annum; $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 per cent. interest is allowed for deposits. The Agricultural and

Commercial Bank of Ireland is the only joint-stock company that has failed, and is in that instance a convincing proof how much more secure the public is in taking their paper to that of private bankers. Its capital was a million, in shares of £5, £10, and £25; the total number of shares issued was 257,377, and the amount paid up £352,789: no shares were forfeited. The deed of settlement was dated 1st December, 1834, and 10th August, 1836. The bank held in trust for the company £45,348 10s. stock. It commenced business the 2nd November, 1834; its notes were payable at the several branches where issued; the interest allowed on current accounts was 2 per cent., and for deposits over three months 3 per cent. In 1835 it had 50 branches in full operation; in 1836 the amount of capital paid up was £395,000, about one-fifth of which was advanced by English capitalists. The entire property of the shareholders was subject to its liabilities. On the 17th October, 1836, the directors declared a dividend of 5 per cent., and that they possessed a reserved fund of £8,004, but made a call on the subscribers of an additional 5 per cent. on the subscribed capital, and on the 17th November following the Bank stopped payment. The directors, however, issued a statement, that it possessed assets to the amount of £4,874 above its capital, after discharging all its liabilities. Auditors, however, soon after reported, that the gross assets were only £290,000, and that they consisted of bills overdue or renewed, and which would leave a deficit of £100,000, instead of a surplus of £8,004, and that, from the number of accounts overdrawn and other causes, the losses of the bank were likely to amount to £300,000, out of £395,000 paid-up capital, on two years' banking. This led to the suspension of eight of the directors, impeached with mismanagement; and the Banks Committee of 1837 instituted a searching inquiry into the transactions of this company. While this was proceeding, a Bill for its dissolution was proposed in the House of Commons, at the instance of a portion of the shareholders, principally from Belfast and the North of Ireland. The Court of Chancery was also applied to for the same purpose: but both were unsuccessful; and after a year spent in expensive litigation, all parties appear to have been reconciled. At a general meeting, held in October, 1837, the directors' conduct was approved of, even

by those proprietors who had so recently assailed it. On this occasion it was stated, that liabilities to the extent of £80,000 had been paid off during the year, and that there were still available assets to the amount of £277,071, leaving a loss only of £48,812. Under these circumstances the business recommenced, but with no better success than in the first instance; it stopped payment again in 1841, having sustained losses to the extent of £70,000. In 1845 an Act was passed directing its affairs to be wound up; and whatever loss the proprietors may have sustained, the public have been paid in full—which speaks volumes in favour of the joint-stock banking system. The National Bank of Ireland was formed by deed of settlement 6th January, 1835, signed by 796 proprietors. Its capital is a million, in 20,000 shares of £50 each: the whole have been issued, and the paid-up capital amounts to £450,000. It commenced business at Carrick-on-Suir in November, 1835, and in 1836 it had 14 branches, with sub-branches and 8 agencies. At present it has only branches which amount to 47. Its notes are payable at the branches from whence they issue: but they are paid without reserve by them all, if required. The directors have their office in London, the same as the Provincial Bank. The interest on deposits varies from 2 per cent. upwards, agreeable to arrangement. In 1836 it divided 5 per cent., in 1837 $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., in 1838 and 1839 5 per cent., from 1840 to 1843 6 per cent., in 1844 $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., from 1844 to 1848 it paid 5 per cent., and the latter year 10s. a share bonus in addition: it also retained £61,105 4s. 4d. undivided profits, and in 1852 its net profits were £32,220, and its undivided £8,074 15s. 1d. The late Mr. O'Connell being connected with the Bank, rendered the circulation of its notes popular among the Irish peasantry, by whom it was styled O'Connell's Bank, and it also induced many of his commercial and trading admirers to bank with it. In 1837 it was exempted from the inquiry instituted by a Parliamentary Committee into Banking in Ireland. It suffered severely from the pressure of 1836, and its next dividend was only $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. From this period a remarkable change took place in its proprietors. In 1836 the number having votes was 246, of whom only 43 were Irish, while in 1843 the votes were 401, of whom only 106 were

English. When it was first established the shareholders were of two descriptions, the one metropolitan the other local: when a branch was formed, the former contributed a sum proportioned to the local subscription, and the profits or losses were divided or sustained accordingly. This arrangement, however, being found inconvenient, in 1837 both stocks were consolidated, with the exception of Clonmel and Carrick-on-Suir; these branches preferring to carry on business agreeable to the original plan. The Clonmel National Branch or Bank has a capital of £80,000, in shares of £10 each, 6,494 of which have been issued, and £16,235 paid up: it has two sub-branches at Cashel and Thurles. The Carrick-on-Suir has a capital of £40,000, of which £4,692 has been paid up; both issue notes, which are payable at their respective establishments. The Ulster Banking Company, although formed by deed of settlement 1st April, 1836, did not commence business at Belfast until 1st July, 1837: its capital is one million, in 100,000 shares of £10 each, of which 74,800 have been issued, and £187,000 paid up: no shares had been forfeited. In 1848 it had 15 branches, issuing notes payable thereat, but, like the other banks, they pay reciprocally, if required. There were then 440 proprietors, and the dividends amounted to 5 per cent. The Royal Bank of Ireland was formed the 1st September, 1836, when its deed of settlement was signed by 306 proprietors: its capital is £1,045,375, in 30,000 shares of £50 each, of which 20,930 had been issued, and £209,175 paid up. It issues no notes, and has no branches; its establishment is in Dublin, and is a bank of discount and deposit; it holds no shares, but has a primary lien on those of the shareholders for debts due the bank by them; it allows 2 per cent. on accounts current, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 per cent. on deposits, according to the time they remain in their hands. It has divided 5 per cent. regularly since its formation to 1848, when it had a reserved fund of £45,475 8s. Its net profits in 1853 amounted to £21,402 11s. 9d., and, after dividing 6 per cent. interest, and a bonus of 3 per cent., amounting to £6,275 5s., it had a reserved fund of £50,000, and an unappropriated balance of £3,257 16s. 2d. out of the profits of 1852-3 remaining. The Tipperary Banking Company was established in August, 1839, at

Clonmel; has 49 proprietors and 8 branches. As it has not yet been under the notice of Parliament, there is but little known of it in detail. It issues no notes, and the business is said to be conducted by three directors, Vincent Scully, Esq., M.P., James Sadleir, Esq., M.P., and W. Kennedy, Esq. It is rather surprising, that, in places of so much importance as Cork and Limerick, no joint-stock banks have been established: in the former city in 1837 (by no means a favourable time) an attempt was made to form one under the name of the Southern Banking Company, but it failed in embryo; and another in Dublin, the Provident Joint-Stock Banking Company, after a temporary and unsubstantial existence, stopped payment.

The following are the particulars connected with the Irish joint-stock banking companies:—

BANKS.	Years when formed.	Branches.	Number of Proprietors.	Capital Subscribed.	Capital Paid up.	Fixed Issue.	Circulation 30th Nov., 1859.	Specie on hand 30th Nov., 1859.
				£	£	£	£	£
Bank of Ireland.....	1783	23	..	3000000	3000000	3738428	3054625	747704
Hibernia Banking Co.	1824	3	..	1000000	250000
Provincial Bank of Ireland	1825	37	867	2000000	500000	927667	964382	235161
Northern Banking Co.	1825	11	179	500000	150000	243440	280680	60484
Belfast Banking Co.	1827	22	264	500000	125000	281611	508332	316489
National Bank of Ireland	1835	47	913	1000000	450000	761757	1019329	387520
Carrick-on-Suir National Bank	1835	..	973	40000	4962	24081	24919	5638
Clonmel National Bank	1836	2	1050	80000	16235	66431	51955	9560
Ulster Banking Co. . .	1836	16	489	1000000	250000	311079	474998	198664
Royal Bank of Ireland	1836	..	472	1045375	209175
Tipperary Joint-Stock Company	1839	8	49

The joint-stock banks of Ireland, as now established, appear to be doing extensive, safe, and legitimate business, and from the wealth and respectability of the proprietary, the amount of paid-up capital, and above all the knowledge of banking which long experience must have taught its present managers, the country should feel confident and secure in the present system. With some few improvements they are calculated to do much good, particularly in the provincial towns, where every effort should be made to

establish manufactures, and these efforts must depend in a great measure on the encouragement and assistance they are to receive from these establishments. The principle of advancing money by way of mortgage on manufacturing premises, which is prevalent with the Scotch banks, is deserving of imitation on the part of the Irish. The issue of all the Irish Banks is fixed at £6,354,474, a sum too limited for the present trade of the country, considering that it is destitute of a gold currency, such as England possesses. Whatever gold there is in Ireland is locked up in the coffers of the banks, as a partial security against their paper issue. If there is really so much of it as represented lying dead in the various banks and their branches, it must be a serious loss to them, without being of any benefit to the public. The same amount of government stock, which would bear interest in favour of the banks, would be as good security, and would enable them to be more liberal in their discounts. Whenever the subject of banking comes under the consideration of parliament again, it will be absolutely necessary that something should be done to render a Bank of England note a legal tender in Ireland, and a Bank of Ireland note the same in England: or, at all events, that these banks should be compelled to reciprocate by paying each others' notes in gold, or in such paper as will pass current in the respective countries.

SAVINGS' BANKS were established in Ireland in 1810, and an Act was passed in 1817 fixing the interest on deposits thereon at 4 per cent.: in 1828 it was reduced to £3 0s. 10d. per cent. The amount of deposits in 1845 was £2,921,581; in 1848 it declined to £1,334,296, occasioned, probably, by the famine and the failure of one or two of these banks. In 1852 the deposits were £1,447,315, being an increase of £113,019. The number of depositors were, for sums not exceeding £20, 26,379; £20, and not exceeding £50, 17,025; £50, and not exceeding £100, 5,814; £100, and not exceeding £200, 677; and exceeding £200, 22 persons.

LOAN SOCIETIES.—There were 113 of these societies formed in Ireland under the Acts 6 & 7 William IV. c. 55, and 6 & 7 Victoria, c. 9; capital, £186,271; total accommodation, £739,056; gross profits, £21,335; net profits, £5,963; expended in charity, £1,072.

INLAND NAVIGATION.—*The Grand Canal*—The extraordinary success that attended the construction of canals in France and England during the last century, induced the merchants and landowners of Ireland to turn their attention to the formation of a canal that would unite the cities of Dublin and Limerick, and the Irish Sea with the Shannon and the Atlantic Ocean. A company was, therefore, formed of enterprising men in 1765, when the Grand Canal was commenced at Dublin. Although the Irish parliament was liberal in aiding this undertaking in its infancy, the sums of money required to carry it on were so enormous, and the difficulties to be surmounted so great, that the required supplies could not be raised for a considerable time, and the stock, which was originally 100, fell to 30. In 1772, this company was incorporated by Act of Parliament, and the capital invested by the subscribers amounted to £60,000, which was to be extended to £150,000. The difficulties, however, of raising the necessary funds still continued, but the company persevered with unshaken fortitude and industry, and the canal was opened—to Sallins in 1783, to Monastereven in 1786, and to Athy in 1791. The navigation then rapidly extended to Carlow; and by the unwearied diligence and public spirit of the directors, more progress was made in five months in the year of 1795, in extending and perfecting it, than had been made in the twenty-three previous years, with an expenditure of nearly £300,000. It is very probable that the Act of 1786, dissolving the Board of Inland Navigation, and vesting in the Grand Canal Company the property and powers it possessed connected with the undertaking, might have been instrumental in effecting these results. This canal was extended subsequently to Tullamore, and thence to the Shannon, and was opened the 25th October, 1803. The branch canal to Ballinasloe was completed 29th September, 1828; that to Mountmellick, 1st March, 1830, and to Kelbeggan, 1st January, 1835. It properly consists of two main lines, one of which extends to Philipstown and Banagher, and communicates with the Shannon, at Shannon Harbour, and, by means of that river and the Killaloe navigation, with Limerick. The other communicates with Athy and Carlow, and joins the Barrow, which is navigable from thence to New Ross and Waterford. The length of the main

channel from the Liffey to the Shannon is eighty miles, and thence to Ballinasloe, in a westerly direction, fifteen miles. These, and the branches to Mountmellick, Kilbeggan, Naas, Corbally, Miltown, Blackwood, and Edenderry, &c., extend over a space of 160 miles. The rise from its junction with the Liffey, at Kilmainham, to Robertstown, is 278 feet above the level of the sea; the fall thence to the Barrow is 97 feet; and to the Shannon, at Shannon Harbour, 162 feet: making together 537 feet, or about 3 feet 4 inches per mile for lockage. It passes through a portion of the Bog of Allan, and Dublin is therefore well supplied with turf or peat-fuel; the boats so employed take back manure, which assists in fertilizing the land in the neighbourhood of the canal. There are packet-boats on it for the accommodation of passengers; and it is a cheap and pleasant mode of travelling, at the rate of $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour. The Cut which connects it with the Liffey at Ringsend is nearly three miles in length, and renders the navigation from Dublin Bay to the Atlantic complete. The cost of constructing this fine canal, its branches, harbours, and other appendages, amounted to £2,028,678, which was raised as follows:—

Grand Canal Stock issued by the Company.....	£670,000
Parliamentary Grants, exclusive of £52,231 17s. 8d. advanced the Company by the Directors General of Inland Navigation for improving the Middle Shannon	93,258
Loans obtained, (for general purposes,) amount- ing to	1,167,750
Loans for constructing the Branch Canals	97,670
	<hr/>
	£2,028,678

Amounting to about £12,000 per mile; which appears extravagant when compared with the recent branches, which only cost £3,600 per mile; and the Kilbeggan even at a lower rate, the 8 miles being completed for the moderate sum of £18,000. The debt was reduced by a grant of £150,000 from government for that purpose to £1,017,750, of which there very recently remained due £720,000, and the company pays an average interest thereon of about 4 per

cent.: this, with a small sinking fund that it is obliged by the Act of Incorporation to keep up towards the ultimate redemption of the debt, amounts to a charge of £30,000 annually, which absorbs nearly the whole revenue of the Canal, so that for several years the dividends have been as low as 1 per cent. on the stock; £4,000 thereof had been derived from passenger traffic, and a further sum for the transmission of light goods, and these have been diminished still further by railway competition—but for agricultural produce the tolls are so low, not exceeding $\frac{1}{2}$ d a ton per mile from distant parts of the Shannon and Barrow, and only $\frac{1}{2}$ d. if brought to Dublin for exportation, that it will not be affected much in the transport of it or other heavy and bulky commodities. Its supply of water is abundant, and even during the driest seasons, for several years past, there has not been the slightest want of it throughout the whole line of navigation. Upwards of forty boats pass its summit-level daily; and it is only surprising, with the immense facilities it affords for traffic, that they do not amount to at least double that number. The conduct of the Shannon Commissioners towards this company, no doubt sanctioned by the Treasury, has been justly deemed arbitrary and oppressive. The proprietors were possessed of the navigation of the Middle Shannon between Lough Derg and Lough Ree, upon the improvement of which, independent of £52,231 17s. 8d. advanced by the Commissioners of Inland Navigation for that purpose in 1806, they expended £30,000 borrowed from the public, for which they are still paying £1,200 a year interest. The conditions on which the government granted this money did not admit of the rights of the company being forfeited, and even if it were insolvent, in common justice it had no right to take an undue advantage of its other creditors, although in law it has very unfairly the precedence. In 1837 the Shannon Commissioners valued this property at £5 only; and by the Shannon Navigation Act of 1839 (2d & 3d Vic., c. 61), they were empowered to wrest the Middle Shannon from the company. Although this property was only valued by the Shannon Commissioners at £5, it appears by their own reports, to have produced in 1840, £700 15s. 5d.; in 1841, £654 6s. 4d.; in 1842, £526 1s. 4d., and £40 a year rent off other premises awarded

them. The Grand Canal Directors remonstrated in vain against this act of injustice, and, as some compensation for the injury sustained, pointed out to Government the propriety of relieving them from the claims it had on the Branch Canals of Ballinasloe, Mountmellick, and Kilbeggan, which were constructed by advances made by the Exchequer Commissioners, and voted by Parliament for the employment of the Irish poor at periods of great and general distress. It appears by the 12th Annual Report of the Board of Public Works, that there was originally advanced—

To complete the Ballinasloe Branch	£46,254	3	1		
Interest thereon	27,938	15	9		
					£74,192	18 10
„ Mountmellick do.	33,416	6	1		
Interest	17,765	3	5		
					51,181	9 6
„ Kilbeggan do.	18,000	0	0		
Interest	8,449	6	7		
					26,449	6 7
					£151,823	14 11

Six years of procrastination occurred before their request was acceded to, and then only on condition that the company would purchase the branches at what was then estimated to be about their value in the market, say £10,000; and for that sum the Lords of the Treasury consented to relieve the company from the pressure of a debt which, by the excessive accumulation of interest, was rapidly sinking the property. This consideration at least the proprietors were fully entitled to, from their fortitude, integrity, and honourable bearing throughout a long period of difficulty and depression, during which a rival establishment, which never should have been called into existence, broke faith with the public, and sunk under circumstances of the most disreputable character. The tolls at the close of the war in 1815 produced £50,000 per annum: they gradually diminished with the peace, and in 1828 were only £25,000; they continued to advance again until 1845, and since then railway competition has reduced the tolls to half the amount they were then. Since November, 1851, the Grand Canal Docks have been leased to the Dublin Docks Company.

Amount of Tonnage and Tolls upon Goods, &c., carried on this Canal from 1835 to 1850, at intervals of 5 years, and for the years 1851 and 1852 respectively.

Years.	Tons.	£	s.	d.	Years.	Tons.	£	s.	d.
1835	215,398	36,030	3	2	1850	226,634	19,122	6	11
1840	219,062	35,435	2	0	1851	236,745	19,501	15	3
1845	285,602	36,762	1	0	1852	237,301	18,702	6	4

The Royal Canal.—A director of the Grand Canal Company having differences with his colleagues, determined on a rival undertaking, and he was enabled, from the success of the original enterprise, to form a company, which was incorporated in 1789, by the name of the Royal Canal Company. An Act of Parliament was obtained to carry out his views, and the patronage of the Board of Inland Navigation was extended to it. In 1795 the Canal was opened as far as Kilcock, and on Sunday, 20th December in that year, the first excursion was made on it; the present Duke of Leinster and his father being of the party. In 1796 its traffic amounted to £108. It was then extended to Mullingar, a distance from the metropolis of about 42 miles, and its revenues had increased in 1810 to £15,024, but its debt was £1,142,550, charged with annual interest to the amount of £49,624 10s.—towards the payment of which there was only £4,131 4s. 6d. available. The proprietors petitioned parliament for relief, and the company was declared bankrupt and the property vested in the creditors, who, it was said, were principally poor widows and orphans. At this period it had only extended to Coolnahay, a few miles beyond Mullingar, and £200,000 was granted to complete it to Tarmonbarry, on the Shannon, a distance of 25 miles. Its length from Dublin to Tarmonbarry is 92 statute miles, including an off-branch from Killashee to Longford of 5 miles. It is fed from Lough Owel, in the county Westmeath; its summit-level is 322 feet. In 1836 the total receipts were £25,148 19s. 7d., and the expenditure £11,912 2s. 10d. The tonnage in 1847 was 112,181 tons, and the tolls collected thereon amounted to £13,931 18s. 4d.; and in 1852 they declined to 91,181 tons, and the tolls to £12,485 18s. 7d. The new company, which was formed out of a portion of the creditors of the old in 1818, made a dividend of 2½ per cent. in

1836, but in 1843 it was only $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The total cost of this wild enterprise was £1,421,954 13s. 1d. ; and had the originators, instead of forming a rival line to compete with the Grand Canal to the Shannon, applied themselves to the purpose of constructing a ship canal that would unite the Bays of Dublin and Galway, and consequently the Irish Sea with the Atlantic Ocean, it would have been a great national, and, probably, a most successful, undertaking, as it would, no doubt, have received the support of the Irish parliament, then liberally disposed to promote all objects of national utility. Forty years after, the late venerated and patriotic nobleman, Lord Cloncurry, projected such a canal, and, as he in his own words described it—"It would have only cost eight millions; and from its construction, the steam navy of Great Britain could pass through it, and it would have answered also as a main drain to the great central bogs of Ireland. A petition in favour of the measure had been presented to Parliament signed by 38 peers, including the Dukes of Devonshire and Leinster, and, after I had expended £500 in preliminary proceedings, the commercial people at Liverpool had sufficient interest with the government to have it cushioned; and in respect to the expenses incurred, the Duke of Leinster was the only nobleman who subscribed a shilling towards them." Under the 8th & 9th Vic. this Canal is the property of the Midland Great Western Railway Company. Boats ply daily from Dublin to Mullingar, Ballymahon, Longford, Richmond Harbour, Carrick-on-Shannon and Lanesboro'. Connected with it, near Leixlip, is the finest aqueduct in Europe; it is 100 feet high, and constructed on a bridge over the river Rye at an expense of nearly £30,000. An excursion from Dublin to Lucan and Leixlip is most delightful, the scenery in the environs of the latter place being truly charming; and the return to town along the banks of the Canal is highly interesting, commanding an extensive view of the bay and surrounding country.

The Barrow Navigation was commenced in 1759, but the company was not incorporated until 1788. The river Barrow becomes navigable at Athy, where it communicates with the Grand Canal at a distance of 42 miles from Dublin, and affords a line of

internal navigation from that city to the sea below Waterford of 120 miles. It joins the river Nore one mile above the town of New Ross, and the Suir a short distance below Waterford. The depth of water between Athy and Carlow is $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet in summer, and 5 feet in winter, which is sufficient for boats of 50 tons loaded. Between Carlow and St. Mullins, boats only of 30 tons can navigate in the summer months. From Athy to St. Mullins, about 40 miles, there is a track-way for horses, and 23 locks. The expenditure on this navigation, from 1790 to 1802, was £62,215 18s. 1d.; and from 1802 to 1836 £115,636 18s. 2d.: total £177,852 16s. 3d. The company have not borrowed money, but it has obtained grants to the amount of £59,300. Previous to the formation of the company in 1790, boats only of from 3 to 5 tons in summer, and 8 to 10 tons in winter, hauled by men, could navigate the Barrow. The receipts for five years from 1832 to 1836 were £25,801 4s. 1d., and the disbursements £17,661 12s. 7d.

The Boyne Navigation was opened in 1759. It has an upper and lower line—the first is partly river and partly canal, and extends from Drogheda to Navan, a distance of 19 statute miles. The latter, which is in the hands of the Commissioners of Public Works, runs from Drogheda to Carrick-dexter, being $12\frac{3}{4}$ miles in length, passing the town of Slane in its course. The rate of freight from Drogheda to Slane is 3s., and to Navan 4s. 6d. per ton. On the lower navigation the boatmen are paid $1\frac{1}{2}$ d., and on the upper 2d. per ton per man. The whole of the traffic is with Navan, with the exception of a small portion with Slane, and some mills in its neighbourhood. There is some difficulty in ascertaining what this navigation cost: it is estimated at £120,000. The receipts for the year 1837 were £775 15s. The accounts of the lower navigation are returned in the report of the Commissioners of Public Works to parliament—the receipts for the year ending April 1844, were £734 12s. 4d., and the expenditure £460 6s. 9d.; but its revenue is considerably diminished since the opening of the Navan branch of the Dublin and Drogheda Railway.

The Newry Navigation.—This Canal was formed for conveying coals found in the neighbourhood of Lough Neagh to Newry, and

thence by sea to Dublin and the other Irish ports. It was commenced in 1830, under an Act of 3rd Geo. II., and vessels laden with Irish coal passed through it in 1741. The Cut from Newry to Fathom was completed in 1763. From Fathom to the Bann at Portadown it is 21 statute miles, and that river renders it navigable 10 miles farther, where it joins Lough Neagh. It opens a water communication with five counties—Down, Armagh, Derry, Antrim, and Tyrone; and with Cavan, Monaghan, and Fermanagh, by means of the Ulster Canal, which connects Lough Erne and Lough Neagh. The navigation was originally under a board of directors, composed of the members for Newry, and the magistrates and gentlemen whose estates lay contiguous thereto. But this board being ineffective, the management was transferred to the Commissioners of Inland Navigation. In 1830 it was, by an Act of the 10th Geo. IV., placed under the control and superintendence of the Newry Navigation Company, which is composed of merchants and ship-owners of the town particularly interested in its success. A loan of £30,000 has been granted, under 6 & 7 Vic., c. 44, to deepen and extend the navigation from Fathom to deep-water at Warrenpoint, a distance of about three miles: there is now a depth of 14 or 15 feet of water to the town of Newry. The amount due to the government by the navigation was £42,000, at an interest of 4 and 5 per cent.; out of which £5,692 1s. 5d. has been paid. The tonnage borne by the canal in 1831 was 70,479 tons, and the tolls paid thereon £2,413 3s. 10d.; in 1837 it was 102,322 tons, and tolls £3,005 11s. 5d.

The Tyrone Navigation commences at Coal Island, near Dungannon, joins the river Blackwater, and from thence proceeds to Lough Neagh, a distance of $11\frac{3}{4}$ miles;—in summer the draught of water is $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and in winter 5 feet. Boats from 30 to 50 tons burthen can navigate it; rates of freight from 4s. 6d. to 6s. 6d.; the amount of tolls collected in 1842 was £202, expenditure £537 3s. It has been for some years in the hands of the Commissioners of Public Works. The tolls in 1851 amounted to £434, having in nine years more than doubled. There is an uninterrupted line of navigation from Coal Island to Belfast, a distance of 61 miles, performed in three days, and to Newry $39\frac{1}{2}$ miles in two days.

The Ulster Canal commences at Charlemont on the Black-water, by which it communicates with Lough Neagh, and, taking a south-west direction by Monaghan and Clones, enters Lough Erne at the eastern extremity, thus uniting the two Loughs. It was constructed by the aid of large sums of public money, and was opened for the passage of boats in 1842. Two stations have been established on Lough Neagh for the accommodation of long boats between the Ulster, Lagan, and Newry Navigations. A steamboat has been also placed on Lough Erne; so that a regular communication has been effected throughout the line, which is 48 miles. The company was incorporated under 6 Geo. IV., c. 193. The amount of capital is £300,000, half of which has been paid up. £120,000 has been obtained on mortgage of the undertaking, and the accruing tolls from the Exchequer Loan Bills Commissioners, and £10,000 from the Board of Works. In 1843 the goods carried was 13,454 tons, being an increase on the year previous of 3,000 tons, and the amount of tolls £1,188 10s. 11d., and disbursements £1,252 12s. 11d.; there was also £1,000 more paid an engineer, and for law expenses.

The Lagan Navigation is partly by the river of that name, and partly by canal, which unites the town of Belfast with Lough Neagh. Up to 1753 it was not navigable, and to render it so, the Irish parliament imposed a tax on beer and spirits for ten years, but it was subsequently extended to the year 1814; the amount then received by the managers was about £50,000, and the Marquis of Donegal, to complete the Canal, secured £62,000, for which transferrable debentures were issued. In 1843 the holders of these, after a contest with the Commissioners of Public Works, were incorporated into a company to manage and improve the navigation. Its length from Belfast to Lough Neagh is $28\frac{1}{2}$ statute miles. The average tonnage of boats navigating it is 50 tons; the depth of water in summer is 4 feet, and in winter 4 feet 9 inches. In 1836 the tolls of boats of that tonnage between Belfast and Lough Neagh was £3 per boat, and the rates of goods from Belfast to Lough Neagh 6s., and to Newry 7s. a ton. The amount of tonnage conveyed on the navigation for the seven years ending

1837, was 265,750 tons; and the toll of about 9½d. per ton amounted to £10,738 7s. 11d. The landing places along the line are the lime-kilns, brick-fields, bleach-greens, mills and factories between Belfast and Lisburn—the towns of Hillsborough, Moira, Magheralin, Soldierstown, Aghada and Kilmore, where there are grain markets, and the important town of Lurgan. The Lagan Navigation also affords communication to the country adjoining Lough Neagh and the rivers Bann and Blackwater. The principal lading from Belfast is coal, herrings, salt, tea, sugar, spirits, iron, bleaching stuffs, &c., and large quantities of foreign timber in rafts. But no correct account, or approximation thereto, could be furnished the Commissioners of the goods conveyed on this navigation. The managers were of opinion, that the construction of the Ulster Railway in 1841 would not materially interfere with the conveyance of goods by the Lagan, but the result has shown how erroneous that opinion was.

The Moy Navigation.—An Act was passed in 1838, appointing some spirited land-owners and merchants of the town of Ballina, county Mayo, to improve the navigation of the river, to enable vessels to come up to that town. On the Moy, however, there is a valuable salmon fishery, and some difference having arisen between the owner and the Commissioners, has had the effect of rendering the Act inoperative up to a recent period.

The Tralee Navigation.—The 9th Geo. IV., c. 118, appointed local Commissioners to form a canal, and improve the harbour of Tralee, for which a sum of public money had been granted, but as it was not expended agreeable to the provisions of the Act, the Board of Public Works, after dissolving the Commission, entered on the undertaking; but after a grant having been made of £4,220 out of its own funds, and two loans obtained of £10,500 from the Exchequer Bills Commission, they do not appear to have made more progress than those they displaced.

The Suir Navigation.—A company was formed in 1836 for the purpose of improving the tidal part of the river Suir, between

Waterford and Carrick-on-Suir: some of the principal obstacles to the navigation, such as rocks and sand banks, have been removed, and a new channel cut, at the expense of about £8,000, which admits vessels of 200 tons to come alongside the quays of Carrick. There is still room for further improvement, and it is to be regretted that the Cut has been made so narrow, as no doubt it will be one day extended to the important town of Clonmel.

The Shannon Navigation is open to traffic throughout its entire length. From the northern part of Lough Allen to Limerick the distance in a direct course is 143 miles, but including the Boyle branch of 9, and the Strokestown of 6 miles, the total line of river and canal accommodation above Limerick is 158 miles; of which 129 from Killaloe to its northern extremity can be navigated by large steamers. In the main river of 115 miles, the entire fall is 35 feet, which has been overcome by the erection of five locks. It is connected with Dublin by means of the Grand and Royal Canals. This important navigation will be more particularly treated of in the History of Limerick in this work, under the head of the river Shannon.

The total average tonnage of the canals and navigable rivers of Ireland was computed, in 1837, at about 600,000 tons, and the amount of tolls £71,242 a year—assuming the charge for tonnage to be at 1d. per ton per mile, the total cost and improvements of navigable rivers and canals must have cost five millions, and the income produced from the traffic thereon in 1843 was £80,000. The construction of railways, however, will seriously affect the income of all these undertakings, and put an effectual stop to their extension for the future.

RAILWAYS.—A considerable time elapsed after railways had been established in England before any attempt was made to introduce them into Ireland. Capitalists seemed averse to embarking their money in such undertakings in a country devoid of commercial and manufacturing enterprise, and every attempt to interest the government or the legislature in their formation in a national point of view, or by granting loans on liberal terms to companies formed

or to be formed for the purpose, was met for a considerable time by a decided negative. The objections that have been raised to government undertaking public works of any description, or interfering in what is called individual enterprise, may be all very well for a country like England, possessing abundance of unemployed capital, but will not stand the test when applied to one destitute of it, such as Ireland. All admit that Ireland possesses great natural and internal resources. Are railways, so essential to their development, to wait the slow and difficult process of creating sources of industrial employment to render them profitable? or is their construction, which would be the means of calling these rapidly into existence, to precede them? If the latter course is preferred, how is it to be accomplished if the government does not run some risk in encouraging them? Without its aid no capitalist would risk a shilling in such doubtful undertakings. It cannot, however, be denied, even as regards England, that both the government and parliament, labouring under this impression, have committed a gross and irremediable mistake, in not only permitting but countenancing the projects and designs of companies and individuals who made railways a source of speculation and jobbing, creating immense fortunes for a few capitalists, but entailing loss, and not unfrequently ruin, on thousands. Railways should have been originally placed in the hands of the government for the benefit of the nation: it was easy to foresee that they could be made a source of great revenue, which in course of time would have saved the country the infliction of many an obnoxious impost. The amount expended on the railways of Great Britain to the 31st December, 1852, was £362,914,007, and on those of Ireland £14,250,000: total £377,164,007, which at 5 per cent. per annum would amount to £18,858,200; but the average dividends of the railway proprietors are considerably more. If these railways were to revert to the English government after a lapse of years, some future Chancellor of the Exchequer would be enabled to remit not only the income-tax, but the malt, tobacco, and other excessive imposts. What the State would derive from them would be paid cheerfully by the public, because it would get in return accommodation, for which it is always content to pay.

The French government, profiting by the mistakes of the English, has only given the companies there a term of years in the railways, at the expiration of which they fall into the hands of the government, and will produce an immense revenue for public purposes, while the English and Irish lines will continue as usual to accumulate fortunes for individuals, but contribute nothing towards the exigencies of the State. Sir Robert Peel, some time before his death, admitted the false position this country was placed in by the adoption of the present railway system, but it was too late to remedy the evil. The Irish railways have a decided advantage over the English in respect to tunnels, there being few or none on any of the lines hitherto constructed. The work is also more permanent, and the cost latterly considerably more moderate. The guage of all the Irish Railways is obliged to be uniform at 5 feet 3 inches, with the exception of the Dublin and Kingstown, which is only 4 feet 8½ inches, that line having been completed previous to the adoption of the larger guage. The average cost of all the lines now open is about £16,000 a mile; the *maximum* is the Dublin and Kingstown line, which cost £63,000 a mile, and the *minimum*, the Killarney Junction, and Waterford and Tramore, which cost something over £5,000 a mile. The Irish Railway Companies are exempt from passenger duty. Assurance tickets can be had at all the principal stations, which for a few pence offer compensation in the event of injury, or payment of the sum insured to those entitled to receive it in the event of death occurring. The following is a summary of the railway traffic in Ireland since the commencement. The Dublin and Kingstown Railway of six miles was the only line open for several years. For the 15 months' traffic ending 30th June, 1836, the number of passengers using it was 1,237,800, producing £35,216; on goods and cattle £105: total £35,421. For the three succeeding years the number of passengers was 3,769,608, producing £99,628; and for goods and cattle £621: total £99,239. For the next three years ending 1st January, 1842, the length of railways had only increased to 13½ miles; and the traffic thereon to the 30th June same year consisted of 5,034,688 passengers, producing £131,397; and goods and cattle £3,400: total for the three years £134,797. For the two succeeding years

ending 1st January, 1844, they had extended to $31\frac{1}{2}$ miles; and the number of passengers to 30th June same year 4,662,540, producing £119,156; and goods and cattle £15,688: total 134,844. For two years ending 1st January, 1846, there were open 65 miles; the number of passengers was 7,092,213, producing £201,231; and goods and cattle £32,910: total £243,141. For the six years ending 30th June, 1852, the miles of railway open, and the traffic thereon, were as follows:—

Years ending 30th June.	Miles open 1st Jan. each year.	Number of Stations.	Total Number of Passengers.	Amount. £	Mails, Goods, and Cattle. £	Total Amount. £
1847 ..	120 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	3,866,294	149,581	35,000	184,581
1848 ..	209 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	4,374,749	211,593	60,215	271,808
1849 ..	361 $\frac{1}{2}$	111	4,963,856	283,481	121,694	405,175
1850 ..	494	129	5,174,632	313,645	159,193	472,838
1851 ..	537	134	5,754,518	350,979	183,796	534,775
1852 ..	624	152	6,630,067	393,128	219,144	612,272

The Dublin and Kingstown Railway is a short line of six miles; connecting the harbour of Kingstown with the city of Dublin. A company was formed with a capital of £200,000 in shares of £100 each, the full amount of which was well paid up. During its construction the Board of Works granted £115,000 in two loans on mortgage, which gave it the power of superintendence and direct control in the operation. The line was commenced in 1831, and opened 17th December, 1834. The receipts for ten years only justified a dividend of 5 per cent. per annum. In 1844, however, it paid 6 per cent., and the directors came to the resolution of paying off the government debt: its stock, which had been at a discount, now brought a high premium; at the half-yearly meeting in September, 1845, the dividend declared was 9 per cent., and the total amount of debt, after paying off the government loan, was reduced to £150,000. The cost of constructing this railway was £63,000 a mile; an enormous sum, considering that the Manchester and Liverpool, the earliest experimental line, only cost £50,000 a mile. It is not, therefore, surprising to see the large fortunes that have been acquired by Mr. Dargan and others who had early railway contracts, and particularly so, when the Killarney Junction, one of the most recent lines, has been constructed at £57,000 a

mile less than the Dublin and Kingstown. Connected with this railway is a short branch of $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles to Dalkey, upon the atmospheric principle. By way of experiment, the Board of Works lent the company £25,000 at 5 per cent. It appeared by the prospectus of the Kingstown and Bray Railway, that the cost of the Dalkey Branch was £35,000: the yearly receipts were £1574 13s. 8d., and the expenditure £758 0s. 1d., leaving a surplus of £836 13s. 7d.; but if the account had been charged with the interest on the loan of £25,000, there would have been a deficiency of £413 6s. 5d.; and if the £35,000 had been all expended, calculating the interest on the additional £10,000 at 4 per cent., it would have been £813 6s. 5d. The traffic on the Dublin and Kingstown line only, for the year ending 1st March, 1853, was £51,486 derived from 2,479,434 passengers, and £1484 for parcels, &c.: total £52,970—being an increase on the previous year of £3838 14s. 7d.

The Ulster Railway was the first enterprise of the kind undertaken in Ireland by a joint-stock company. The capital of the company is £500,000, in shares of £50 each, £49 of which has been paid up. The cost of the line to Portadown in the first instance was £348,646, out of which only £20,000 was derived from government. The line was opened for traffic to Portadown in 1841, and is now complete to Armagh. The Dublin and Belfast Junction unites with it at Portadown. In the year ending March, 1853, there used this line 67,423 first-class, 183,709 second-class, and 352,201 third-class passengers, total 603,333, producing £32,298 12s. 4d.; and goods and cattle £24,842 7s. 4d.: total £57,240 19s. 8d. It divided, 31st August, 1853, £2 11s. per share, being upwards of 5 per cent. per annum.

The Dublin and Drogheda Railway.—This line opened for traffic 24th May, 1844: the length of the trunk line is 32 miles; the Howth Branch is $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles; the Navan Branch from Drogheda $17\frac{1}{2}$ miles; and from Navan to Kells $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles: total $62\frac{3}{4}$ miles. The original stock of the company is 6,000 shares of £75 each. Under an Act of 1845 there were issued 6,000 additional shares of £25 each for the construction of the branches. The amount of these shares

has been paid up, and a preferential capital of £50,000 created, bearing interest at 5 per cent., for the construction of the line from Navan to Kells. A mortgage has been executed by this company to the Dublin and Belfast Railway Company for the cost of the Navan Branch and interest thereon; for the payment of which, however, 7,400 additional shares of £25 each have been raised, bearing interest at 4 per cent. For the year ending 31st December, 1852, the traffic on the line was 60,776 first-class, 158,808 second-class, and 277,811 third-class passengers, total 497,395, producing £38,690 14s. 3d.; and mails, goods, &c. £16,344 0s. 7d.: total £55,034 14s. 10d.; and it divided for the year ending 30th June, 1853, £3 5s. 4d. per cent. in two half-yearly payments.

The Great Southern and Western Railway opened for traffic in 1846. The capital of the company consists of 50,000 shares of £50 each, and 50,000 one-eighth shares of £6 5s. each. The company obtained £500,000 of the parliamentary loan of 1837 to Irish railways. It has issued 56,250 preferential shares, on which a call of £4 a share has been made. It is authorised to subscribe to the South-Eastern Railway £90,000, and to the Killarney Junction £60,000; both of which communicate with this line. Under Acts of Parliament it has power of extension to 248 miles, of which 186 are now open; consisting of the main trunk from Dublin to Cork, and a branch to Carlow. Another branch from Portarlinton to Tullamore is in course of construction. A junction with the Waterford and Limerick Railway is formed at Ballykeesteen, 22 miles from Limerick, with the South-Eastern at Carlow, and the Killarney Junction Railway at Mallow. For the year ending 30th June, 1853, there used this line, of all classes, 526,912 passengers, producing £152,697; mails and parcels £45,505; goods £52,248; and cattle £12,132: total £262,582. There was a dividend of £2 10s a share, equal to 5 per cent. per annum.

Londonderry and Enniskillen Railway.—The capital of this company consists of 6800 shares of £25, and 13,600 shares of £12 10s. each; total £340,000—all of which has been paid up. It is empowered to borrow to the extent of one-third its capital. £40,000 of the £12 10s. shares is entitled to a preferential dividend

of 5 per cent. The line was opened for traffic April 14th, 1847, and now extends to Fintona, 41 miles from Londonderry. Its authorised length is 60 miles. It consists of a single line of rails, which cost about £10,000 a mile. The amount of capital raised to 30th June, 1853, was £459,502; all of which has been expended. The traffic for the year ending same date amounted to £8,758 14s. 1d. derived from 157,938 passengers; and for goods, &c., £10,240 3s. 5d.: total £18,998 17s. 6d.

The Midland Great Western.—The authorised capital of this company is £1,948,000, with power to borrow £648,666. 20,000 shares of £50 paid up were created under the first Act, and 16,000 shares of £25 each (£20 paid up) subsequently. The Treasury advanced the company £500,000 under an Act of Parliament, the estimated amount necessary to extend the line from Athlone to Galway, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest for the first ten years, after which $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. additional, towards the liquidation of the principal, is to be paid. Should the working profits of the line be deficient in this respect, it is to be made good by rates levied off the counties of Galway and Roscommon. This Act enabled the company to obtain the required land between Mullingar and Athlone at £681 a mile, and between Athlone and Galway at £535 a mile, which is much under the average paid for land for such purposes. The Royal Canal is now the property of this company, to whom the Grand Canal is also leased for seven years. The authorised length of this railway is $178\frac{1}{2}$ miles; it was opened for traffic in 1847, and the trunk line, $126\frac{1}{2}$ miles, between Dublin and Galway, is complete, and the extension to Longford and Cavan, 50 miles additional, is in progress. The traffic for the year ending 30th June, 1853, was 34,780 first-class, 102,935 second-class, 126,432 third-class, 97,189 fourth-class: total passengers, 361,331, producing £66,169 16s. 11d.; goods and cattle £48,605 0s. 5d.: total £114,774 17s. 4d. Expense of working £53,946. The dividend for the year ending 30th June, 1852, was 4 per cent., and for 1853 5 per cent. The receipt of capital was £1,918,620, and expenditure £2,038,199.

Belfast and Ballymena Railway.—The capital of this company is £513,333, £385,000 of which is derived from shares, and

£128,333 borrowed on debentures. It was completed and opened for traffic 11th April, 1848; its length is $37\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The traffic for the year ending 30th June, 1853, amounted to £18,746, derived from 413,688 passengers; and £15,132 the produce of goods and cattle: total £33,878—increase over 1852 £1,356.

Belfast and County Down Railway.—This company was incorporated 26th June, 1846; capital £50,000, in 10,000 shares of £50 each, £48 of which has been paid up, and loans obtained £166,666: total £666,666. The length authorised is 45 miles to Downpatrick, of which $16\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Belfast, by Holywood to Newtown-Ards, are now open. The traffic for the year ending 31st July, 1853, was 65,423 first-class, 300,506 second-class, subscription tickets £1,053 2s. 3d.: total derived from passengers £9,552 4s. 2d.; goods and parcels £2,723 3s. 4d.: total £12,275 7s. 6d.—expense of working it £5,463.

Waterford and Kilkenny Railway.—The capital of this company is composed of 12,500 shares of £20 each, paid up, and 40,000 preference shares of £5 each, bearing 6 per cent. interest, £3 a share paid, with power to borrow £149,000, of which the Commissioners of Public Works have advanced £123,000. The length of line authorised is 31 miles, $28\frac{1}{2}$ miles of which is open from its junction with the South-Eastern line at Kilkenny to Dunkitt, within about two miles of Waterford, its destination. Traffic for the year ending 30th June, 1853, £2,354 0s. 1d., derived from 33,197 passengers; and from goods, cattle, &c. £1,548 14s. 10d.: total £3,902 14s. 11d. The amount received to 29th September, 1853 is £506,339, and expended £503,666.

The South-Eastern Railway.—By an Act passed in 1849, the capital of this company was reduced to £264,000, in 22,000 shares of £12 each paid up, with power to borrow £88,000. The Great Southern and Western Railway Company hold 7,500 shares of this stock. The Exchequer Loan Commissioners have advanced £35,000 of it. It opened from Carlow to Bagnalstown in July, 1848, and from thence to the junction of the Waterford and Kilkenny Railway at Lavistown, from thence to Kilkenny 2 miles: the com-

pany has the exclusive right to one line of rails on the Waterford and Kilkenny Railway, and half of the junction station at Kilkenny: the rent paid for these privileges is £1,025 a year. The locomotive power is provided, and the line worked, by the Great Southern and Western Company. The traffic for the year ending 30th June, 1853, was £6,160 14s., derived from 60,850 passengers; and by goods, parcels, &c. £3,702 1s. 10d.: total £9,862 15s. 10d. The receipts of capital to same date were £255,765, and expenditure £253,175. The dividend for the year was only 3s. a share, or $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.

Waterford and Limerick Railway.—The Act incorporating this company authorised it to raise by shares £750,000, in 15,000 shares of £50 each, which have been paid up, and to borrow one-third of that sum, £120,000 of which has been lent by the Board of Public Works. The authorised length of this line is $77\frac{3}{4}$ miles, 75 of which is now complete to Drunkitt, within about two miles of the extreme distance. It crosses the Great Southern and Western about three miles west of Tipperary, which then form a continuous road between Dublin, Clonmel, Tipperary, Limerick, and Cork. The traffic for the year ending 30th June, 1853, amounted to £15,272 11s. 10d, derived from 139,544 passengers; parcels £1,246 18s. 1d.; and goods and cattle £9,218 17s. 1d.: total £25,737 17s. The amount received towards the construction is £802,592, and expended on it £779,268. The day mail is carried on this line for one shilling a mile. The directors have made no dividend, having appropriated the receipts to the discharge of claims, and the completion of the line.

Dublin and Belfast Junction Railway.—This company was incorporated by Act of Parliament in 1845; and another Act authorized the sale of the Navan Branch to the Dublin and Drogheda Railway Company, at a cost of £186,389, which, at 5 per cent. interest, will yield the Company £93,194 10s., after which the interest is to be $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. until the principal is paid. The capital consists of 19,000 shares of £50 each, amount £950,000, with power to borrow £316,666: £45 a share has been paid up. The line extends from Drogheda to Portadown, $55\frac{1}{2}$ miles, thus uniting

Dublin and Drogheda with the Ulster line, and Dublin with Belfast: it also joins the Dundalk and Enniskillen Railway at the former town. The receipts for the year ending 30th June, 1853, were from 176,660 passengers, £31,201 4s. 7d.; and for mails, goods, and parcels, £20,503 15s.: total, £51,704 19s. 7d. The dividend during the same period was £2 2s. 6d. a share, or $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. On this railway is the VIADUCT OVER THE BOYNE, one of the most stupendous works in Ireland, second only to the Menai Bridge in magnitude and engineering difficulty; and like it, calculated to excite amazement and awe, as well as apprehension, in those who for several months have been traversing this portion of the line. It was on a fragile, temporary bridge, composed of wood raised on a doubtful foundation, by which the trains were conveyed over the river, at an immense elevation during the progress of the more solid and permanent structure, which certainly excites admiration in the beholder, no matter how much the judgment and discretion of the engineer, Sir John Mac Neile, may be questioned. It is quite evident, by extending the line one or two miles, and crossing the river on the west side of Drogheda, it could be effected for considerably less money than the erection of the viaduct will cost, which has caused the ruin of one contractor, and is likely to entail a heavy loss on those who are now completing it. But no doubt Sir John was ambitious of his name descending to posterity as the constructor of this great link in the chain which unites the Dublin and Belfast Junction Railway with the Dublin and Drogheda line. It stretches across the river between the entrance to the harbour and the town, and is now nearly completed. It consists of eighteen semi-circular arches, each sixty feet span, resting on seventeen piers, exclusive of the abutments, which are founded on solid rock. The north abutment is at a depth of forty feet below the surface of the earth; they are composed of blocks of granite, one to two tons weight, rock ashlar work, and have the appearance of great strength and stability. The height of the arches of the ravine is 140 feet; and, in addition, there is a strong stone wall erecting on the top, four feet high, which in some degree gives it the appearance of security. The lowest of the arches is seventy feet above the surface of the earth. The viaduct is 1,400 feet long.

The largest piers rise from the bottom and sides of the ravine, and they are all composed of that beautiful lime-stone, chiseled, for which the neighbourhood of Drogheda has been so long famed.

Dundalk and Enniskillen Railway.—By an Act passed in the session of 1850, the share capital of this company was reduced to £406,800 paid up, with power to borrow to the amount of one-third its capital: 7,701 shares have been forfeited, on which £61,364 had been originally paid. The line was opened 15th February, 1849, from Dundalk to Castleblaney simultaneously with the Dublin and Belfast Junction Railway; and in 1854, it has been further extended to Ballibay, and a bill is before parliament to form a branch to Cavan, for which preferential shares to the amount of £130,000 are to be created, bearing interest at $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The traffic, exclusive of mails, for the year ending 30th June, 1853, consisted of 56,008 passengers, producing £3,870; and goods parcels £2,964 6s. 7d.: total £6,834 6s. 7d. The half yearly dividend to 31st December, 1853, was six shillings a share.

Newry and Warrenpoint Railway was opened for traffic 26th May, 1849. It is a single line of rails, of the bridge form, sixty-four lbs. to the yard, laid upon longitudinal sleepers. Its capital was raised by means of 5,000 shares of £20 each; amount £100,000, all paid up, with power to borrow £33,333. The receipts for the year ending 30th June, 1853, were from 172,146 passengers, £3,227 8s. 3d.; and goods, &c., £231 18s. 6d.: total, £3,459 6s. 9d.—being an increase of £304 14s. 8d. on the traffic of 1852. An agreement has been made with Mr. Dargan, by which he is to work the line for five years, and pay the company the net sum of £2,600 per annum, to be paid weekly; and should the receipts at any time exceed £80 a week, the difference is to be divided with the company. The paid-up capital to 30th June, 1853, was £114,729, and £112,846 expended.

Newry and Enniskillen Railway.—This line is in a state of abeyance, for although $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles of it to Gorah Wood are open, where it joins the Dublin and Belfast Junction Railway, there appears to be nothing doing towards its further extension. The capital of the company is classed thus:—Class A, 18,000

shares of £20 each; B, 18,000 of £15 each; C, 18,000 of £15 each. Series A to be credited with all calls until £20 on each is paid-up; the next sums to be paid-up on B, until the amount of that series is called in, and so on as regards C: £7 10s. per share has been called. The receipts on account of capital amount to £114,883, and the expenditure £105,620.

Cork and Bandon Railway.—This company was authorized to raise £240,000, by means of 4,800 shares of £50 each, all paid-up, and to borrow £80,000, of which £35,000 has been advanced by the Exchequer Loan Commissioners. On the 1st August, 1849, the line was partly opened, and on the 8th December, 1851, it was completed to Cork, the whole distance being twenty miles. Weight of the rails 70 lbs. a yard. The traffic for the year ending 30th June, 1853, was 69,978 passengers, producing £4,459; and goods and parcels, £1,315: total, £5,774—working expenses, £4,311. Amount of capital received, £315,376; expended, £308,596.

Cork, Blackrock, and Passage Railway.—This company was empowered to raise by shares £170,000, and to borrow £56,663; there issued 6,500 shares of £20 each; the amount of which is now called. An amended Act authorized the extension of the line to Monkstown. This line was opened from Cork to Passage 8th June, 1850; its length is six miles. The Board of Works has advanced the company £15,000. Traffic ending 30th June, 1853, amount derived from 596,730 passengers, £9,808; parcels, £99: total, £9,907—being an increase on the previous year of £2,161.

Cork and Waterford Railway.—This company was incorporated 26th August, 1846; capital, £1,500,000, with liberty to borrow £500,000; but by an amended Act passed in July, 1851, it was reduced to £1,270,214; the authorized length of this line is ninety-seven miles. It may, however, be considered in abeyance, as no steps have been taken for the prosecution of the undertaking. The amount of capital received to the 30th June, 1853, was £75,571, of which £70,349 has been expended.

Ballymena, Ballymony, and Port Rush Railway.—The capital of this company is £200,000, derived from 20,000 shares of £10

each, and loans obtained, £60,000; length of line authorized, thirty-five miles. The works are in progress of construction by Mr. Dargan, contractor.

Wexford, Wicklow, and Dublin Railway.—Several changes have taken place on this line. The Act of July, 1851, authorized the abandonment of that portion of the intended line south of Wicklow, and reduced the shares to £10 each, £6 of which has been called, and the work is now progressing; the receipts of capital have been to the 30th June, 1853, £243,458, and expenditure £228,573.

Dublin and Bray Railway.—The capital of this company is £200,000; consisting of 8,000 shares of £25 each, £15 of which has been paid up, and it is empowered to borrow £66,333. The authorized length of line is $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles. It is now united with the Wexford, Wicklow, and Dublin Company; and it is intended to extend the joint line to the Vale of Ovoca.

Killarney Junction Railway.—This company was incorporated July, 1846. In 1851 the amount of capital was reduced to £225,000, and power given to borrow £125,000 on the security of certain portions of the counties Cork and Kerry; £8 a share has been called-up. The length of the line from the Mallow station, on the Great Southern and Western Railway, is $39\frac{1}{2}$ miles; it was opened to Freemont in May, 1853, and to Killarney the July following. It has been constructed at about £5,000 a mile, the lowest of any in the United Kingdom. The Great Southern and Western Railway Company may subscribe £60,000 to it, or purchase, or lease it.

Londonderry and Coleraine.—The capital of this company is composed of 10,000 shares of £25 each, and 20,000 half shares of £12 10s., both paid up: total, £500,000; and it has power to borrow £166,666, of which £86,500 has been obtained. The length of the line is thirty-six miles, nineteen of which, from Londonderry to Newtown-limavady, were open for goods traffic, 1st October, 1852, and the line throughout to Coleraine, 18th July, 1853. There was received towards the construction to 30th June, 1853, £468,168, and expended £465,124.

Waterford and Tramore Railway.—This company obtained an Act to construct this line of $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles, 24th July, 1851, and raise by 4,800 shares of £10 each, £48,000, and power to borrow £16,000. It was opened for traffic 5th September, 1853, twenty-two weeks having only elapsed from the commencement to the completion thereof; which, notwithstanding, was effected at the moderate cost of £5,500 a mile.

Limerick and Ennis Railway.—This company was incorporated in 1846; capital £150,000, derived from 6,000 shares of £25 each. The authorized length of the line $26\frac{1}{2}$ miles; the works are in progress, and are likely to be completed towards the end of 1854.

Limerick and Foynes Railway.—The capital of this company is £130,000, the produce of 5,200 shares of £25 each. The authorized length of the line is twenty-six miles; the works are progressing.

Tralee and Killarney Railway.—By an Act passed 15th August, 1853, this company was empowered to raise by shares £110,000, and borrow £55,000, to construct this line, which is to be twenty-two miles in length.

The length of railways open in Ireland, 30th June, 1852, was 680 miles; in course of construction 139 miles; and authorized, but not open, 811 miles. In Great Britain, the length open was 6,395 miles; in course of construction 599 miles; and authorized, but not open, 3,997 miles. For the half-year ending same time, the number of passengers carried on those open was 39,249,605, and the total receipts £7,195,551, or about fourteen millions for the year. Although this will not admit of so large a dividend as 5 per cent., which it was supposed they would produce, yet, as there was an increase of £446,030 on the half-year ending 30th June, 1852, over 1851, it is only fair to infer that they will go on increasing until they pay considerably more than that dividend. At all events, were they in the hands of the government, a revenue of twenty millions a year could be derived from them, which the public would pay with more satisfaction than any tax ever imposed on it.

FISHERIES.—Many authorities can be adduced to prove that the ancient Irish employed themselves extensively in fishing. It would be surprising indeed if they did not, in a country which, independent of the deep sea fisheries which surround its coasts, has upwards of 100 rivers frequented by salmon in great abundance, and in the prime condition. It is equally certain that a pearl fishery existed on some part of the Irish coast, as Ninnius, an English writer of the 9th century, describes the beauty and abundance of pearls in Ireland, which its princes and persons of rank then wore appended from their ears; and Gilbert, bishop of Limerick, in 1094, made a present of a considerable quantity of valuable Irish pearls to Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury. Even Cambrensis bears witness to the existence of Irish fisheries as late as the Anglo-Norman invasion. There is no country in Europe, or probably in the universe, so admirably situated for an extensive fishing trade as Ireland. From Cape Clear in the south, to Malin-head in the north-west, the coast is studded with numerous banks, such as those off Brandon-head, at the entrance of the Shannon; Moyman, near Westport; the great banks extending into the deep sea from Slyne-head, Achil-head, and Innisboffin Island, on the Connemara coast, probably a continuation of the great Newfoundland banks, and, like them, abounding with fish of the most valuable description, such as ling, cod, equal to those of the North Sea, haddock weighing from 15 to 30 lbs., &c. The sea along this coast is often speckled with marine animals of a larger size, such as the Greenland and Spermaceti whale, the sun-fish, &c., producing oil of the most valuable description. Here, then, is a field open for the employment of 100,000 fishermen, whose operations would give sustenance to millions of people. This coast was the principal fishing ground of the Dutch in the palmy days of their naval superiority, when their admiral, Van Tromp, with a broom at his mast-head, contemptuously swept the British seas for a considerable time without molestation. These enterprising navigators, in 1615, had 2,000 fishing vessels with 37,000 men; and the produce of their fishing for one year previous thereto amounted to £1,759,000. In 1618 they increased to 3,000 vessels and 50,000 men, and 9,000 vessels to transport the fish to

various countries; and, computing those occupied in the curing and sale of this fish, it must have given employment to 150,000 persons, and was the great nursery for producing skilful and experienced seamen to man their war navy. Although Blake's victories tended to destroy their fishing on the Irish coast, England did not profit by the lessons of the Dutch, and, with Ireland for centuries in its hands, has never attempted on a large scale to explore the vast treasures of the deep sea that washes its western shores; nor has the Irish capitalist directed his attention towards it either, although the country has been for a series of years importing fish from Scotland and Newfoundland, on an average, to the amount of £140,000 per annum. Bounties were granted by parliament in 1764, and afterwards in 1819, to encourage the Irish fisheries, and commissioners were appointed to grant money for the erection of piers, and the building of boats of a certain tonnage for the purpose. An annual sum of £5,000 was also placed at their disposal, a portion of which was appropriated to enabling fishermen to obtain gear on advantageous terms. This commission was revoked in 1830, and the power to distribute these funds given, in the first instance, to the Board of Inland Navigation, and subsequently to that of Public Works; £13,000 was granted to them for five successive years to complete the piers, the building of which had been commenced previous to 1830. No further measures were adopted until 1842, when the Commissioners of Public Works were appointed as a Board to improve and regulate the Irish fisheries. The country is divided into forty coast fishing, and seventeen inland or salmon fishing districts.

The number of Vessels and Men employed in the Irish Sea Fisheries for six years, at intervals, between 1830 and 1853, is—

	YEARS					
	1830.	1836.	1845.	1848.	1851.	1852.
Vessels & Boats . .	13,119	10,761	19,883	15,932	14,756	13,277
Men & Boys	64,771	54,119	93,073	70,011	64,612	58,822

From this it appears that the Irish fisheries are not improving; on the contrary, there is a decrease on the year 1852, compared with 1845, of 6,606 vessels or boats, and 34,881 men and boys, being fully one-third of the number, and it is now much in the

same position it was in 24 years ago. The famine of 1847, and the extensive emigration that succeeded it, have had a serious effect in retarding the prosperity of the Irish fisheries. The construction of railways have, however, been of service to them, and are likely to benefit them still more. For the year ending 1st April, 1853, the main lines brought to Dublin 1305 tons of fish, and to Drogheda 447 tons. There is little or no herring fishing on the west coast, but in the Irish Sea between the eastern ports and the Isle of Man, there are from 200 to 300 fishing vessels from Cornwall, towards the end of summer, profitably employed in the capture of herrings, with a portion of which they supply the Dublin and Liverpool markets, and cure the remainder in the Isle of Man: sometimes they sell to the owners of the Dublin and other fishing smacks, who supply the Irish out-ports on that coast. Some idea may be formed of the great advantage these fisheries might derive from the home market, when the importation of herrings alone from Scotland and the Isle of Man, in 1852, was 60,414 barrels, equal in amount to £100,000. The principal salmon fisheries have not been so productive since 1842, some of them having fallen off one-half; this is attributed to various causes, the most feasible of which is, that the noise and action of steam boats, on many of these rivers, frighten away the fish; this, however, could have no effect on the most extensive, which are Ballyshannon and Coleraine, where there are no steamers. In 1851 and 1852, there was a progressive improvement in the supply, and the price of previous years, at the same time, maintained; there was also an unusually large take of eels in the Shannon and Bann for the year 1853; this description of fish is sent alive in boats, constructed with wells, to the London market, where they meet a ready sale. The 10th & 11th of Victoria, c. 75, gives a free grant of £40,000, to be appropriated to the construction of fishing piers and harbours; the total amount expended to the 1st January, 1851, on them, was £113,391 4s., and £500 was granted in the session of 1852 to the Commissioners to enable them to prosecute further inquiries in respect to fisheries. Last session a bill was presented in parliament, by Mr. P. MacMahon, M.P. for Wexford, to repeal several of the

Irish Acts relating to fishing, and substitute others now in force in England; the bill, however, does not appear to have been followed up. A company is now forming in Dublin, it is said, with a large capital, which is to be employed in deep sea fishing on the western coast, and, it is to be hoped, with better success than others which have preceded it.

MINES AND MINERALS.—The unexplored treasures which the land of Ireland contains have been as much neglected as those of the sea that circulates round its coast. Although gold, silver, lead, copper, and other metals were early discovered on the island, no encouragement was given through many a dark and turbulent age of its history by the great landed proprietors to seek after mines; or, if accidentally discovered on their estates, to work them. The public mind was always impressed with the idea that gold existed in the country to a considerable extent, and the discovery of nuggets and particles of that metal occasionally picked up in the Wicklow mountains, and towards the end of the last century, by the peasantry in the streams of the Kinsela mountain, to the extent of £10,000, were calculated to confirm it. The government, on ascertaining that gold had been discovered to some extent in the latter place, took possession of the district, and appointed agents to superintend the works; but, after two years operations, all that was collected amounted to only 945 ounces, which sold for £3,675, while the expense of the establishment was considerably more; the property was given up in consequence, and although subsequently leased to a London company, the pursuit was finally abandoned. It was not until within the last half century that any progress was made in mining operations in the country; the formation of the Irish Mining Company was a step in the right direction: it has persevered with great spirit and ability in carrying out its views in respect to this enterprise. The attention of the company has been principally directed to lead and copper ore. Lead is extensively diffused throughout Ireland: the granite district of Wicklow contains numerous veins of this metal: it is also interspersed to some extent in the clay slate districts; few, however, of the mines already worked have proved profit-

able: at Ballycoras, where the lead of the Mining Company of Ireland is smelted, the ore worked up from Luganure mines was 674 tons, which produced 460 tons of lead, equal to 69 per cent., the proportion of silver, however, being very small, only 8 ounces to the ton: whereas the ore of Kilbrickin produced 120 ounces to the ton; Tollyrath mine, near Strangford, 10 ounces; Cairne, 12 ounces; Ballybrickin, 15 ounces; and Shalee, 25 ounces to the ton: total amount of silver produced by all these mines in 1852 was 11,412 ounces. Native silver was found in a bed of iron ochre in Cronebane, but the deposit has been long since exhausted. It was also discovered associated with the lead ore at Ballycoras some years since; and the Mining Company of Ireland have lately resumed operations to prove this valuable discovery. The copper mines are distributed throughout the clay districts in a great number of localities. The most extensive are Ballymurtagh, Conaree, Cronebane, Tignoney, and Ballygahan, in the county Wicklow;—Knockmahon, Kilduane, Bonmahon, and Balinasista in Waterford;—the Allihies or Berehaven, Coshien, and Skull, in the south-west district; and Hollyford and Lackamore, in the west district. Indications of this metal have been discovered in several other parts.

The total quantity and value of copper ore sold at Swansea for nine years is as follows:—

Years.	Tons.	£	Years.	Tons.	£	Years.	Tons.	£
1836	21,819	163,865	1847	14,587	96,330	1850	10,021	69,594
1845	18,430	97,122	1848	12,808	82,039	1851	10,577	77,713
1846	17,471	106,078	1849	10,425	68,974	1852	12,171	104,822

This is by no means flattering to Irish mining, if the ore sent to Swansea is to be taken in proof of it, as the quantity and value of what was sold there in 1836 exceeds that of 1852 by more than one-third. But those which are most neglected, and yet are the most valuable of all the mining products, are the coal-fields of Ireland, occupying large portions of Kilkenny, Clare, Limerick, Cork, and Kerry, and are more limited in Carlow and Tipperary; all these are south or south-west of Dublin, and produce only anthracite coal, which burn without flame. The fields discovered north of Dublin contain bituminous or inflammable coal: one of these is in Coal Island,

two in the northern extremity of Antrim, and one in Monaghan. They are all small, the strata being so shallow, as to render the last in particular valueless. When coal was first discovered at Coal Island, it was supposed that it could be obtained in sufficient quantity to supply Dublin and all the other Irish seaports; but now, not only Belfast and Newry, but the towns, such as Portadown and Dungannon, in its immediate neighbourhood, are supplied with sea-borne coals. The Connaught fields extend over a space of sixteen miles, and are situated in Leitrim, Sligo, and Roscommon; the total area about 140,000 acres. Independent of the coal mines, Ireland possesses two other sources of fuel—turf, or peat and lignito, an intermediate species between wood and coal. It is found in dense strata encompassing the south side of Lough Neagh. The total area of the turf bogs of Ireland is estimated at 2,830,000 acres, something more than the one-eighth portion of the island; of these, 1,576,000 acres are flat bog, spread over portions of the great central plain, and 1,254,000 are mountain bog, scattered over the hilly districts near the coast. Iron ore is found in all the coal localities, and was manufactured to some extent while timber for fuel was abundant; latterly the efforts to carry it on have not been successful. In Leitrim is situated the Arigna Iron Mines, convenient to a mountain composed of iron-stone, with abundance of coal in the same locality: these will be in future times sources of considerable wealth. Sir Richard Kane, in his work on the industrial resources of Ireland, gives the comparative contents in metallic iron of the Irish, English, Welsh, and Scotch ores. 100 parts of ore give of metal an average of—

	Natl. state.		Roasted.			Natl. state.		Roasted.	
Arigna.....	40	0	58	2	Welsh	37	4	44	7
Staffordshire.	28	0	40	4	Glasgow ..	31	6	45	8

There is no doubt that Irish ore is superior to those generally employed in Great Britain. The iron-stone in Kilkenny is little inferior to the Arigna, and they possess a richness only equalled by the black band iron-stone of Glasgow. Tin-stone has been found in the auriferous soil of Wicklow, but no veins of working deposits have been discovered. Other minerals, useful in manufactures and the arts, found in various parts of the country are—

manganese, antimony, zinc, iron pyrites, alum, marble, building stone, flags, and roofing slates. The total number of mines in Ireland is forty-eight: the Mining Company works sixteen. The Wicklow Mining Copper Company works Ballymurtagh mine; Cronebane and Tignoney Copper Mines are worked by Messrs. Williams; Ballygahan Copper Mine by Mr. H. Hudson; the remainder by other companies and individuals. It is estimated that ten thousand persons are employed in all.

INCUMBERED ESTATES COURT.—Previous to 1835, money advanced on landed property could only be recovered by a Bill in the Courts of Chancery or Exchequer; a judgment-creditor, it is true, might get into receipt of a portion of the rents by elegit, and a mortgagee enter into possession or force a sale by foreclosing his mortgage; but these remedies were tedious, and attended with considerable expense. To simplify, and render the recovery of money so advanced more easy, and to free the landed property of the country from the incubus of nominal proprietors, unable from their embarrassments and want of capital to render it as valuable or productive as it otherwise would be, the 11 & 12 Vic., c. 46, was passed in 1848, to facilitate the sale of encumbered estates in Ireland; but, owing to its defective construction, it was inoperative, and in the following session the 12 & 13 Vic., c. 77, was passed. Under this Act the Crown was authorised to appoint three Commissioners to form a Court of Record, with power to frame rules for regulating its proceedings, which, on being approved of by the Privy Council, and enrolled in Chancery, were to have the same force as an Act of Parliament. This court was empowered, on the application of an owner or incumbrancer, within the term of three years, and since extended to 28th July, 1855, to sell lands or leases of certain duration in a summary way, for payment of the charges affecting them; and that the effect of such conveyance by the court would be to pass to the purchaser the fee-simple and inheritance of the property discharged from all former rights, charges, or incumbrances whatsoever. Similar effect was given to the conveyance of leasehold interests, so that in both cases the court confers on the purchaser an unquestionable parliamentary

title. The commissioners are empowered to investigate titles, to sell either by private contract or public auction, to distribute the purchase-money when received, or in fit cases to lodge it in Chancery. The rules formed by the commissioners received the sanction of the Privy Council 17th October, 1849, and in a few days after the court commenced its sittings for the dispatch of business. The total number of petitions presented to the 21st October, 1853, inclusive, was 2,922, of which 622 were lodged by owners, and the court made 2,119 absolute orders for sale. The first auction was held in its place of sittings, Henrietta-street, Dublin, 21st February, 1850; since that date the number of lots sold by its orders were 5,809, producing £10,430,463. About 1,691,702 acres have changed hands, with an estimated net rental of £6,436,072. A sum of £803,410 remains to satisfy unadjusted claims, besides a balance in the Bank to the credit of suitors amounting to £2,048,461. Of the gross produce of the sales under the Incumbered Estates Court, Leinster contributed £2,768,210 5s. 2d., Munster £3,270,287 19s. 11d., Ulster £2,173,202 9s. 8d., and Connaught £2,218,762 10s. 4d. Landed property has sold best in Antrim, Down, Meath, Westmeath, Tyrone, and Dublin; and in Clare, Limerick, Tipperary, and Mayo, it has produced the least. The English and Scotch purchases have been extended to all the counties, with the exception of Clare, Sligo, Armagh and Londonderry. Still there is nothing in them to justify the impression that an English or Scotch colonization is intended to fill the vacuum left by the exodus of the Irish Celt to the Western Main.

The following are the particulars of the English, Scotch, and Foreign purchases since February, 1850:—

Provinces.	Number of Properties.	Purchasers.	Acres.	Amount. £ s. d.		
Leinster	32	35	43,485	330,165	0	0
Munster	71	75	68,862	604,161	12	6
Ulster	24	15	51,866	324,517	0	0
Connaught	46	66	332,723	620,765	0	0
	173	181	496,936	£1,779,608	12	6

Of these, 31 purchased property under £1,000; 38 between £1,000 and £2,000; 45 £5,000 to £10,000; 17 £10,000 to £20,000; and 20 £20,000 and upwards. The amount purchased for Scot-

land was £204,643; for London £977,433; for Lancashire £236,366; for Calcutta £40,000; and for America £2,320. These purchases constitute about one-sixth of the gross amount of sale, and two-sevenths of the acreage; but they do not appear to be made by settlers. The great bulk of the English purchases have been made by companies, or persons holding mortgages on these properties, who may be said to have bought them in, the sale probably giving them a better title than they had previously; but they are not likely to become settlers, and the only change will be, that they will receive their incomes direct from the tenants, which they formerly obtained from the agent of the nominal Irish landlord. Money from Calcutta and America is included in these purchases; but it is quite evident, from the small sum sent to be vested in them from the latter place, that the Irish there who have remitted millions to take away their friends, are still determined to cling to the country of their adoption. One of the few and the greatest boon that Ireland has derived from English legislation was the creation of the Incumbered Estates Court. Its powers of retributive justice have been very great indeed. A brief summary of its proceedings will show what a bloodless revolution it has accomplished in Ireland in a remarkably short space of time.

The court, at the termination of three years' sitting, sold property to the extent of one-twelfth of the whole area of Ireland; how a great portion of that property was obtained, although a matter of history, shall not be here discussed—suffice to say, that 1081 of the old Irish landlords were evicted, among whom were 3 marquises, 17 earls, 4 viscounts, 7 barons, 12 right honourables and honourables, 21 baronets, 6 titled ladies, 2 counts, 5 knights, 7 members and 13 ex-members of parliament. They have been replaced by 4,213 new proprietors, 2,718 of whom were small capitalists or farmers, none of whose purchases exceeded £2,000; and one of the greatest benefits resulting from this operation, is the number of small proprietors it has created, who have gone on steadily increasing during the years 1852-3.

AGRICULTURE.—Tenure of Land and Tenant Right considered.

—That Ireland is a country eminently adapted to agricultural

pursuits, is admitted by those most intelligent and experienced in the science. The luxuriance, richness, and durability of the soil for such purposes, in some districts, cannot be excelled in any country. The land possessing these qualities is to be found in many other counties, but Limerick, Tipperary, Meath, and Louth are particularly distinguished for them. The climate, however, is more adapted to green crops than cereal productions, with the exception of oats. The tenure of land varies considerably. Formerly leases for 999 years, or in perpetuity, were granted with or without renewal fines. During the existence of the forty shilling freeholders, leases for one or more uncertain lives were most prevalent—these gave the tenant a vote, and the landlord the control over it. Now leases are more generally granted for 21, 31, and 61 years. There are great numbers of middlemen who rent land from the chief landlord, re-let it to under tenants, who in their turn sub-let it again, and the occupying tenant, according to English law, not only becomes liable for his immediate rent to the party under whom he holds, but for all the intermediate rents beside. Grazing farms are large; those under tillage are in general small, particularly in Ulster, where the linen manufacture has the effect of sub-dividing them. The cottier system still exists in many districts where the agricultural labourer gets a patch of land from his employer in lieu of wages, on which he grazes his cow and plants potatoes. Joint-tenancies also prevail to some extent. The abolition of the corn-laws, which deprived the Irish landlords of the English market for the sale of their cereal produce at high prices, induced them to turn their attention from agricultural to grazing pursuits, and to enable them to make extensive pastures on their estates: the tenants on them possessing small tracts of land were ejected wholesale. The Irish census commissioners in 1841 made returns of the number of holdings throughout the country, and the value of the stock or domestic animals appertaining thereto. In 1847 this was followed up, and, in addition, an inquiry instituted by the Irish government to ascertain the quantity and value of agricultural produce, and the number of acres under each particular crop, which has since been extended from year to year. The constabulary had the conducting of this: in the first

instance the returns were made from the town-lands, about 60,760 in number, under the able direction of Major Larcomb, to whom the country is much indebted for the information they contain: these were subsequently consolidated in the poor-law unions, and printed returns presented to both Houses of Parliament annually. In 1841 the total number of holdings or farms in Ireland over one acre was 691,114, and the value of the stock thereon £19,399,843, and on those of one acre and under £1,705,965: total, £21,105,808. In 1852 the farms were 554,413, and the value of the stock £28,701,693, and on those under one acre £452,536: total, £29,154,229—being a decrease in the number of farms or holdings of 136,701, or $19\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and on the stock of the holdings under one acre £1,253,429; but the value of the stock on the farms over one acre increased to £9,301,850, and on the country at large it was £8,048,421. The value of the stock, however, on holdings under one acre in 1852, although so much less in amount than in 1841, increased in 1851 £41,293. The stock of 1841 and 1852 consisted of the following:—

Years.	Horses & Mules.	Asses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Pigs.	Goats.	Poultry.
1841...	576,115	92,365	1,863,116	2,106,189	1,412,813	no return	8,458,517
1852...	545,900	144,120	3,095,067	2,613,943	1,072,658	278,444	8,175,904

This shows that Ireland has increased considerably in asses, while it has decreased in horses, and the latter, combined with the increase on horned cattle and sheep, shows that grazing has superseded agriculture; while the deficiency in pigs and poultry is accounted for by the disease of 1846 lingering in the potatoe through the six succeeding years, although gradually recovering since 1847, when the number of pigs was only 622,459, and poultry 5,691,055. The value of this stock is generally considered to have been taken too low in 1841, and its real value in 1852 is probably five millions more than it is estimated at in the returns. Horses were rated at £8, asses £1, horned cattle £6 10s., sheep £1 2s., pigs £1 5s., goats 7s. 6d., and poultry 6d. each.

The entire extent of land under crop in 1852 was 5,739,214 acres, being 119,737 less than in 1851, and it is the first year since 1847 in which a diminished extent under cultivation, compared

with the preceding years, has been observed ; but the returns of 1853 show a still further decrease on 1852 of 42,263 acres, and in 1854 of 126,341 acres, as will appear by the following :—

CROPS.	YEARS.			
	1847. Acres.	1852. Acres.	1853. Acres.	1854. Acres.
Wheat	743,871	353,566	326,896	411,284
Oats	2,200,870	2,283,449	2,157,849	2,045,298
Barley, Bere, and Rye ...	345,070	303,402	348,642	287,154
Beans and Peas	23,768	86,189		
Total cereal crops ...	3,313,579	2,976,606	2,833,387	2,743,736
Potatoes	284,116	876,532	898,733	989,660
Turnips	370,344	356,790	399,377	329,170
Mangel Wurzel and other green crops	73,278	121,565	120,133	98,777
Total green crops ...	727,738	1,354,887	1,418,243	1,417,607
Flax... ..	58,312	137,008	174,579	151,403
Meadow and Clover.....	1,188,946	1,270,713	1,270,742	1,257,864
	1,197,258	1,407,721	1,445,321	1,409,267
Total.....	5,238,575	5,739,214	5,696,951	5,570,610

It appears from these returns that there were, in 1852, under general crops, 500,639 acres more than in 1847, which is to be accounted for by the short planting of potatoes, the crop having totally failed the year previous. Wheat decreased on the five years 390,305 acres, and underwent a further reduction in 1853 of 26,670 acres, but in 1854 it increased 84,388 acres. Oats increased on the five years 82,579 acres, but in 1853 decreased 125,600 acres, and in 1854 further decreased 112,550 acres. In barley, bere, peas, beans, &c., there was a decrease in 1852, compared with 1847, of 29,247 acres, but in 1853 they increased 9,051 acres, and in 1854 again decreased 61,488 acres. Comparing the total number of acres under cereal crops in 1852 with 1847, there was a decrease of 336,973 acres, in 1853 there was a further decrease of 143,219 acres, and in 1854 of 89,651 acres. In green crops there was an increase in 1852, as compared with 1847, of 627,149 acres. Potatoes increased 592,416 acres, in 1853 they still further increased

22,201 acres, and in 1854, 90,927 acres. Turnips decreased on the five years 13,554 acres, but increased in 1853, 42,587 acres, and in 1854 again decreased 70,207 acres. Mangel wurzel and other green crops in the five years increased 48,287 acres, but in 1853 decreased 1,432 acres, and in 1854, 21,356 acres. In flax there was an increase on the five years of 78,696 acres, and there was a further increase in 1853 of 37,571 acres, but in 1854 it decreased 23,176 acres. Meadow increased on the five years 131,767 acres. The total increase on green crops, meadow, and flax, in 1853, over 1852, was 100,956 acres, which, deducted from the decrease of 143,219 acres in the cereal crops, leaves a deficiency of 42,263 acres. All this tends to prove that agriculture is rapidly on the decline in Ireland, and that the soil which produced food when under tillage for millions of human beings, is now turned into extensive pastures to feed cattle for the English market, and this will still further increase as long as the manufacturing prosperity of England continues as it is at present. In respect to wheat, the Irish agriculturist, induced, no doubt, by recent high prices, appears to have turned his attention to this crop, although the climate is quite unsuited for its production. Wheat can only be cultivated to advantage in climates where the sun has powerful influence: the atmosphere of Ireland is too temperate to admit of wheat of superior quality being produced there. These returns but too well account for the wholesale emigration that continued for five years, and has been only recently checked. The number of holdings of one acre or under is not returned in 1841, but no doubt such existed to a considerable extent. Those from 1 to 5 acres were in that year 310,375, and from 5 to 15 acres, 252,778. The first class of holdings or farms have been reduced in 1852 to 81,561, and the second to 182,308: therefore 299,284 of these holdings have been swept away—that is to say, in eleven years considerably more than one half the small farmers of Ireland have been dispossessed of their holdings. Taking their families at an average of five, which is under the mark, 1,496,420, or in round numbers one million and a half of the population have been deprived of the means of existence, and are now either in Foreign lands, or have become inmates of the workhouse or of the silent grave. The extensive pastures, the large farms,

and the increased stock, although indicative of more wealthy occupants, are still but indifferent substitutes for the numerous cheerful and happy peasantry that one day flourished there. It is gratifying, however, in some degree, to find that the holdings of an acre are on the increase, those in 1853 exceeding 1852 by 737 holdings; but there is a diminution in the farms up to 30 acres of 6,022, and an increase in those exceeding that number of 1,163—total decrease on the year, 4,859 farms; and since 1841 it amounts to 141,560 farms.

TENANT RIGHT is a question which has engrossed so much of public attention, both in and out of Parliament, and is so essentially necessary to a good understanding between landlord and tenant, and also to the peace and prosperity of Ireland, that it is to be regretted that this work, devoted to so many subjects, can only briefly discuss its merits. In doing so, a glance at how land was originally held, previous to the introduction of English law, may not be uninteresting.

Although the hereditary principle extended to professions and offices, the monarch, the provincial kings, and even the subordinate chiefs, were elective. The chief of every sept had only a life interest in the title and estate: they did not descend from father to son, unless the former appointed the latter his tanaist, and even then it was necessary that he should be elected by a majority of his sept. This was called tanaistry. Gavelkind were the inferior tenancies under the chief: the land was divided by him among all the males of the sept, illegitimate as well as legitimate. After this partition, if any one of the sept died, his portion did not descend to his son or next-a-kin, but the chief made a new partition of all the lands, and gave every one his share according to his antiquity, the deceased's sons or nearest male relatives coming in for their proportion, as a matter of course. The tenure of land was of various kinds. Where it was held by a free tribe, under a chief of the same family, the occupiers were obliged to maintain the chief's household in food, clothing, and other necessities, and to support him in his offensive and defensive warfare. The land was liable to a new or subdivision every fourth generation; and it was competent for any occupier to sell his interest in it to any other member of the tribe, or mortgage it, without consulting the chief or the

tribe at large : but he could not sub-let it even to one of the tribe, or sell his interest in it to a stranger, without the consent of both. The immediate chief had not absolute power over the lives and properties of his dependents, as the chief prince above him had always authority to compel him to the fair and faithful discharge of the conditions laid down by the laws to regulate the duties between the chief and his dependents. The occupier of the land could not be dispossessed, unless he was found guilty of some heinous crime, when he was deprived of his patrimony and cut off from the tribe. An occupant holding his portion of tribe-land, and also land at a rent from the chief, or subsequently from the church, was allowed to dispose of his tribe-land, but not of the lands of the chief or of the church. These he was obliged to keep in his own hands, or restore to their original owners. A stranger, who took lands from the chief at rent and service during pleasure, might at any time leave, taking with him one-third of the property on the lands, and leaving two-thirds to the chief for the use thereof, and the protection afforded him. If a tenant took lands at will, or for a term of years, and enjoyed it during that term, or should he leave of his own will before the expiration thereof, then the land and improvements went to the chief ; but if forcibly dispossessed in the interim, he was entitled to take with him any moveable improvements made by him thereon. These are the leading features of the ancient Irish laws respecting the tenure of land, and it is a fact, that they remained in force for four hundred years after the Anglo-Norman invasion, and the English system of tenure had been introduced into the country.

This, in some degree, accounts for the aversion the Irish have invariably shown to tenants coming from other localities to occupy holdings or farms, from which families long in possession had been ejected. Tenant right is that which gives the occupier of the soil, as well as the landlord, a direct interest in it. It consists of what the land would be actually worth to a solvent tenant over the rent paid to the landlord. It exists in tenancies at will, as well as in those under lease, and is in general operation throughout the province of Ulster, and partially so in the counties of Leitrim and Sligo ; but it is merely sanctioned by custom, and is not legally

binding. It had its origin in the confiscation of Ulster by James I., and in the manner the English and Scotch undertakers carried out his plan for its settlement. These undertakers were granted large tracts of land, on condition of building dwelling-houses of a certain description thereon, and sub-letting a portion of the land to undertenants for three lives, or twenty-one years, who would be ready on every emergency to defend their new settlements. The tenants thus brought in were stationed in a hostile country, and service more than rent in money was what they gave in the first instance; and their descendants, who have had since then the free exercise of arms, were enabled to dictate terms to the original undertaker or his successor. The Irish or Catholic tenants were disarmed, and at the mercy of their landlords, and, consequently, there was no tenant right in the other provinces. But independent of this feudal or military tenure in Ulster, there are inherent rights in every tenant, which, although not directly admitted, either by the law or the landlord, are indirectly demonstrated by this system. The value of tenant right on a farm depends, in some measure, on the character of the landlord: some respecting it as a matter of justice, proceeding from long usage; while others consider it compulsory, and are unwillingly obliged to observe it. Should a tenant be dispossessed by process of law or otherwise, the incoming tenant is only charged the original rent; and the fine he pays for possession goes to the late tenant, after paying arrears of rent, if any. If the rents are low, they are, at all events, well secured to the landlord by this arrangement, and the farm is sure to be kept in condition when the occupier knows that, should he be dispossessed, under any circumstances, he will be paid the value of his permanent improvements. One of the salutary effects resulting from this system, notwithstanding the opinion entertained by the advocates for large farms to the contrary, is, that it deprives the landlords of the power of increasing the size of those on their estates, otherwise than by purchasing the tenant's right or interest therein. In Ireland landlords do not contribute towards the improvement of the farm. They neither erect buildings, nor keep those that are erected in repair; they contribute nothing towards fencing, ditching, draining, building or repairing farm-houses and offices, or other permanent improvements: all of which

is done in England at the expense of the landlords. Numerous bills have been before parliament to settle this question between landlord and tenant : Mr. Sharman Crawford presented one in 1843 ; Lord Stanley, now Earl of Derby, another in 1845. Subsequently Sir William Somerville, Mr. Napier, and Mr. Serjeant Shee, prepared bills. Of these, the two latter were sent before a special committee appointed to consider the question, and out of the elements they contained, it adopted a Bill or Bills, which obtained the support of Government and passed the Commons ; but after the measure had been briefly discussed in the Lords, it was regularly shelved for the session. Its consideration was resumed in 1854, and the Lords, after altering and mutilating it in some essential points, have passed two Bills—"The Landlord and Tenant (Ireland) Bill," and "The power of Leasing (Ireland) Bill," neither of which come up to public expectation ; and, considering the late period of the session, and the amendments which await them in the Commons, the probability is that they will not pass the Legislature this session either. Mr. Sharman Crawford's bill received the greatest amount of popular support. It proposed to give tenants-at-will, as well as those holding under a lease, compensation for the erection of new buildings, and the repairing of old ones ; for planting or raising fences ; for draining, trenching, reclaiming, and enclosing, or other permanent improvement, by which the value of such lands had been increased : the compensation to be assessed in the first instance by the county surveyor, and, should the parties not agree to it, and that the sum assessed exceeded £100, to be referred to the Court of Exchequer, and when it was only for that sum, or under, to be determined by the assistant barrister at quarter sessions. Mr. Serjeant Shee's bill of last session does not differ very materially from that of Mr. Crawford's. It defines what tenant right is in Ulster. It provides for all improvements made by the tenant, or by those from whom he has derived. Instead of the compensation being assessed by the county surveyor, it is referred to two arbitrators mutually chosen, who, if necessary, appoint a third ; and should there be no award, and that the claim did not exceed £100, to be then determined by the assistant barrister and a jury at quarter sessions ; and should

it exceed that sum, by the judge of assize, with or without a jury. In all awards, the fair rent of the premises, and the price of the produce, for which the rent was computed, must be certified. If the landlord makes the necessary buildings or improvements, the tenant's claim is not admissible; and if he continues the tenant in the premises, at the rent certified by the arbitrators, he shall not be liable to pay him compensation, such tenancy to be for a term of not less than fourteen years. Tenants under lease made previous to the repeal of the corn-laws, or since 1815, to be enabled to surrender their farms on the ground of excessive rent, and to be allowed compensation for permanent improvements. Tenants not receiving compensation for buildings, on the pretence of their not being suitable to the premises, may pull them down and remove the materials; or, expending money on improvements, and paying a fair rent for the premises, are protected from eviction; and where arrears have accumulated from the failure of crops, to claim an adjustment and composition of such arrears. The intended amendments extend the term of leasing from twenty-one to thirty-one years, and provide compensation for improvements suitable to the farm: such as building, extending, or repairing of farm-houses and offices, the reclaiming of waste lands and bogs, removing rocks or stones from the surface, making boundary fences and farm-roads, and the main and thorough draining of the land, or any other improvement specified in the Act of 10 & 11 Vic., c. 22. In none of these bills or amendments does there appear any clause to restrain, wrest from, or lessen the arbitrary and unjust power vested in the landlord in distraining the tenant's crop or stock for rent, or arrears of rent, without preliminary legal proceedings, which he possesses over every other description of creditor. Why he should have this exclusive power can only be accounted for by the fact, that the law was made by landlords, and for their own special advantage. Such a law did not exist until the reign of William and Mary; previous thereto, the profits only were liable to be seized in satisfaction of the rent agreed to be paid for the use of the land; the landlord could not sell the goods so distrained, until 2 William & Mary, c. 5, was passed, which first gave that power; and the 2 George II., c. 19, further confirmed it. That a landlord should be empowered by law

to sweep away by distress the whole of the tenant's crop, leaving nothing towards the labour or capital employed in producing it, is most unjust, and the Acts which enable him to take such an advantage over every other creditor ought to be forthwith repealed.

POOR LAWS.—It is not surprising that Ireland, left for three centuries without any provision for its poor, should have presented occasionally a mass of human misery unparalleled in any country in Europe. The Reformation commenced by suppressing the monasteries, and confiscating their revenues to the crown, which in turn dispensed a portion of them to those satellites who aided and abetted it in the spoliation. The poor, who both in England and Ireland had derived their principal support from the monasteries, and who had, in point of law, both civil and ecclesiastical, an inherent interest in the tithes, a portion of which (after depriving the Catholic Church of the whole) was retained to support the Protestant establishment, and another portion granted to lay impropiators. But the poor derived no advantage from this division, nor were their claims to support admitted by either. The consequence was, that in England as well as in Ireland, the Reformation was unpopular with the great body of the people, and particularly with the poor. This was demonstrated by several insurrections in its early stages; and, notwithstanding the most sanguinary and brutal acts and proclamations against paupers, disorders, outrage, and discontent prevailed, until at length the Queen and the Parliament were obliged to pass the 41st of Elizabeth, which made the land liable to the support of the poor in England. But no such law was extended to Ireland; there the new religion was attempted to be established by penal enactments and at the point of the bayonet. The hostility which existed between the English and Irish when they professed the same religious tenets, was now considerably augmented by sectarian animosity. Had measures of conciliation and gentle persuasion been resorted to, and a law similar to that passed in England been extended to Ireland, and the dispensation of its provisions placed in the hands of the Protestant clergy, as they had been there, the Reformation might have been otherwise than what it has proved to be, a total failure.

After public opinion being much divided in respect to the propriety of extending poor laws to Ireland at all, the present law came into operation in 1839, but the workhouses were not open for the admission of paupers until 1840. The following statement will show the number of persons receiving in and out-door relief during the most trying periods of the late famine.

Years ending 29 Sep.	Number of Unions.	Expenditure. £	Number relieved in the Workhouse.	Number relieved out of the Workhouse.	Total Number relieved.	Salaries & Expenses. £
1846 ..	129	435,001	243,933	..	243,933	504,920
1847 ..	130	803,686	417,139	..	417,139	700,733
1848 ..	131	1,835,634	610,463	1,433,042	2,013,505	598,374
1849 ..	131	2,177,651	732,284	1,210,482	2,142,766	474,374
1852 ..	163	883,267	504,864	14,911	519,575	360,905

It appears from this statement, that in 1847, the first year of the famine, there had been no out-door relief given by the poor-law guardians, they not being authorised to do so by law previous to the passing of the 10th Vic., c. 31, and the number of inmates in the workhouses had nearly doubled, compared with 1846. Some idea may be formed of the ravages that want must have made, in 1847 in particular, among the population, when in 1848 there were 1,433,042 persons receiving out-door relief. By the returns of 1852 the number receiving relief both in and out had considerably diminished, and in 1853 it had still further decreased. One means of effecting this is the wholesale emigration that has been carried on by the guardians from many of the unions. In two years, from May, 1848, to April, 1850, twenty emigrant ships were dispatched to Australia with orphan-girls from the Irish workhouses, to whom a free passage was granted by the government, the board of guardians defraying the cost of their outfit and conveyance to the port of embarkation. It does not state how they were to be provided for when they arrived at their port of destination. The total number of emigrants dispatched in this way from 117 unions for the two years was 4117. In 1851 a further number of 273 was embarked for Sidney. In 1853 the number sent out by the workhouses, or assisted to embark for the same destination, was 3825, from 93 unions; of which 492 were males of fifteen years and upwards, 2,218 females, and 1,115 children under fifteen years of age, depending on their parents.

Poor-Rates.—All lands, buildings, mines seven years open, commons, and all profits out of lands, navigations, rights of way, casement upon land, tolls, &c., are liable to poor-rates. Turf bogs, for which rent is not paid, places of worship, burial-grounds, buildings used exclusively for charitable and public purposes, are exempt. The persons liable are the occupiers of property rated, and in their default, the subsequent occupiers. The owner of any rent, except of rent charges, is bound to allow the person who has paid the rate, half the amount. The owner of tithes is liable to pay the whole poundage. Occupiers of tenements without leases, previous to the passing of the Poor-Law Act, at and under £8 a year rent, in certain boroughs, and at and under £4 elsewhere, are not liable, but the immediate lessor is to be rated instead. Three years after the formation of the union, the guardians of any two or more electoral divisions may agree to have the division borne in common. The accounts of the guardians are made up half-yearly, and audited by persons appointed by the Poor-Law Commissioners. The amount of poor-rates levied in 1846 was £376,507; in 1847 it was £645,657; in 1848, £1,619,810; in 1849, £1,674,793; and in 1852, £1,109,630. The number of persons who received relief in 1852 was not much greater than in 1847, although the rate levied is nearly double the amount. On the 15th October, 1853, the number in the workhouses was reduced to 80,799, and receiving out-door relief to 2,047 persons. And now that the government has remitted its claim on the Poor-Law Unions for the advances made out of the Consolidated Fund for the relief of the poor—and that emigration, and a gradual improvement in the condition of the country, have contributed to thin the workhouses, the rates should be as low in 1854 as they were in 1846, the year before the famine, when the amount levied was only £376,507, and the expenditure £435,001. Industrial employment has been introduced to a certain extent into these institutions, but they are capable of great extension in that way. The guardians, instead of filling emigrant ships with boys and girls from the workhouses, if they turned their attention to having them instructed, each in some particular branch of trade and handicraft while there, it would enable them to make out an honest livelihood on leaving

it; and it would be the means of planting the seeds of industry in their youthful minds, which might produce good fruit in their more mature years, and, without putting the union to the expense of sending them abroad, they might be made useful members of the community at home. There have been several valuations, which tend much to confuse. The first is under the Act 6 & 7 Wm. IV., c. 84, taken for the purpose of more equally levying the grand jury cess. The poor-law valuation of 1838 takes in property not liable to the county cess. To explain these, the 9 & 10 Vic., c. 110, was passed; and subsequently, the 15 & 16 Vic., c. 63, in which the valuation of the land was adopted for all assessments, having reference to the intrinsic worth and capabilities of the soil, its adaptation to different descriptions of produce, and its value according to a scale of prices of agricultural produce embodied in the Act, and taking the net annual value of mines, fisheries, &c., to which such principle of computation can be referred. Under this Act the whole of Ireland will be revalued by R. Griffiths, Esq. Connected with the union workhouses are the Dispensaries, established in 1851, by the Medical Charities Act, 14 & 15 Vic., c. 68, which empowers the guardians to form poor-law unions into dispensary districts, subject to the approval of the Poor-Law Commissioners. This Act made some alteration in the constitution of the poor-law commission, by appointing an additional commissioner, who must be a physician or surgeon of ten years' standing; and they are empowered to appoint inspectors, being physicians or surgeons of seven years' practice. Each dispensary district is placed under a committee of management, composed of the guardians of the district and rate-payers, elected by the guardians of the union. The 163 unions, containing 3,439 electoral divisions, have been divided into 723 dispensary districts, giving an average of rather more than four divisions to each district of about 9,000 inhabitants, and for each medical officer thereof about 8,400. Each district is under a separate committee, and has one or more dispensary stations, and proportionate medical officers. No dispensary relief can, in future, be obtained by grand jury presentment out of the county cess. The appointment of all medical officers for dispensaries now rests with the committees of management, their

salaries to be determined by the guardians of the union; and appointment and salary to be approved by the commissioners. The boards of guardians provide the necessary accommodation for the dispensaries, and pay the salaries of the medical officers, the amount to be charged upon the poor-rates of the electoral division. The rent of a dispensary is £38 for a union, and £8 10s. for a district. There are 776 medical officers, with salaries of £71 4s.; twenty-nine apothecaries with £40 7s.; and seven midwives with £15 each—in all £62,718 7s. 2d. There are other expenses, such as for beds, fuel, attendants, salaries, &c., amounting to £35,123 4s. 5½d.: total £97,841 11s. 7½d. Annual cost of a union £600 5s. 1d., and of a district £135 6s. 10d. Previously to this Act coming into operation, the workhouses were frequently most inconveniently crowded with patients. The number for whom accommodation was provided in the year ending 25th March, 1850, was 42,072; an average of 34,714 were under treatment every week, and the total admitted during the year 468,028; the expense of medical attendants was £23,947 3s. 3d.; of nurses and others £8,929 15s. 11d.: total expenditure £177,039 11s. 9½d. There were also in 1851, 154 Fever Hospitals, in which the patients cost £28,140; and in 1852, there were 159, and the cost of patients £19,608.

The County Infirmaries, although they may be visited by the Poor Law Commissioners and directors, in concert with the local governors, as to the management given by them, yet they derive no support from the poor-rates. They are supported by grand jury assessment, not to exceed £1,400 annually for each county, aided by a treasury grant of £100 Irish, for the surgeon's salary; also by subscriptions, donations, bequests, and petty sessions' fines. The institutions give intern treatment of all serious cases, medical or surgical; and sometimes give extern relief to patients attending the infirmary. They are governed by corporations, consisting of the Lord Chancellor, the Protestant primate, the bishop of the diocese, the vicar or rector of the parish, and life governors, who pay £21 for life, and annual subscribers, who pay three guineas each. In 1849, the number of intern payments was 11,114; extern 45,930; total 57,044: the expenditure was £27,475 18s. 5d. The receipts

consisted of—grand jury presentments, £26,372 14s. 10d. ; parliamentary grant, £2,049 13s. 11½d. ; subscriptions, £1,332 11s. 10d. ; and other sources, £3,373 1s. : total £33,128 1s. 7½d.

BOARD OF PUBLIC WORKS.—The history of the formation of this board, and its operations, which are so intimately connected with the improvement of Ireland, will be found interesting in showing how public money, heretofore voted for works of national utility, has been flagrantly squandered, or shamefully misapplied. In the second year of the reign of George II., an Act was passed, empowering George Frisell, A. Crossdale, and John Ringrose, out of their own funds, to make the Shannon navigable from Limerick to Carrick-drum-rusk, a distance of 100 miles towards its source, and to charge 4d. a ton per mile on all goods conveyed on the improved navigation. The provisions of this Act were not confined to the Shannon, but had for their object the improvement of thirty rivers, and the construction of canals in connexion with them, so as to obtain 1,000 miles of inland navigation, and place 10,000 square miles, or 6,400,000 square acres within five miles of a navigable river or canal. It professed, also, to have another object in view—the draining and reclaiming the waste lands and bogs of Ireland, which were then much more numerous than they are at present. This scheme, extensive for a few individuals to attempt, unless possessed of enormous wealth, was perfectly absurd, when the projectors proposed to borrow the money to effect it at 8 per cent. This plan, therefore, for improving a portion of the Shannon, proved abortive. To remedy this, an Act was passed in the third year of George II., which set forth that works of public benefit and advantage should be effected by means of a fund set aside for the purpose, and to be derived from a tax on carriages, cards, dice, and gold and silver plate. The Lord-Lieutenant, the Lord Chancellor, the four Protestant archbishops, and eighty peers and commoners were appointed commissioners. At the end of twenty-one years, the fund only amounted to £63,128 9s. 7½d., a sum quite inadequate to the purpose. It was also found difficult, out of so great a number, to get three of the commissioners together, without which it was impossible to perform any legal act. Another Act,

the 25th George II. was, therefore, passed, constituting the commissioners a corporation for promoting and effecting inland navigation in Ireland. It was authorized to hold Courts in Dublin four times a years, to elect from among its members twenty-four assistants, vested with extensive powers, who were to appoint suitable officers, with adequate salaries and fees, to survey the country; to lay out new roads from mines to navigable rivers and canals, and to perform other acts of improvement—but jobbing and speculation appears to have been the principal aim of these parties, and the good intentions of this Act proved quite as illusory as its predecessors. To amend it the 29th George II., c. 10, was passed, which, after detailing the incompetency of the commissioners to perform the duties entrusted to them, directed, that practical persons, not members of the corporation, should be employed to carry its provisions into effect. Another Act, the 3rd George III., gave them powers to build a house for their meetings and dispatch of business. During the existence of this board, vast schemes of improvement were projected, but only a few trifling matters were effected. Doubts had been for sometime entertained of its efficiency, and other parties more active, and having a direct interest in several of the undertakings, set about putting some of them in execution. In 1766, an Act, 7th George III., c. 26, incorporated a company for making the Shannon navigable from Limerick to Killaloe, and directed the Board of Inland Navigation to deliver up to it all the money and materials connected with the undertaking. A power of control, however, was specifically reserved to the board, which created an insuperable obstacle in the way of its success. By 11 & 12 of George III., c. 4, this corporation might transfer any navigation to a private company who would enter into security to complete its formation; it had, still, however, the power to aid and control the works; but the aid was limited to the one-sixth part, and that only to be advanced when the subscribers, or company, had expended thereon five-sixths of the estimated amount. The Grand Canal Company became possessed of all the powers vested in the Inland Board for carrying out this project. Every day this board became more and more embarrassed: having issued warrants far beyond its means, it was

forbidden to issue more, until the outstanding debts were discharged. For that purpose the taxes on carriages, dice, &c., were continued, but salaries, rents, and other expenses of the establishment were to be satisfied, and these nearly consumed their produce, so that little progress was made in their liquidation. The parliament, however, in restraining the excesses of the board, wished to show that it did not intend to restrict the progress of public works by withdrawing government aid from them, and this Act, therefore, contained a grant of £10,900 for the improvement of Lough Swilley. The longer, however, the board continued extant, the more corrupt and unpopular it became; when at length one of the many beneficial acts resulting from the Irish Parliament, accomplishing its independence, was the dissolution of this board in 1786. The amount of taxes levied by it was £382,292, and the parliamentary grants entrusted to its management were £227,629, in all £609,921—on an average £10,891 8s. per annum. Had this sum been honestly and judiciously laid out for navigation purposes, it would have effected many important improvements, but it was appropriated to corrupt patronage and selfish gratification. The terms of the Act that dissolved it, pronounces best its *panegyric*. The several canals, lands, &c., belonging to, or over which it had control, were vested in the local parties connected therewith. All plans, books, estimates, &c., were ordered to be delivered up within twenty-one days to the auditor of impress accounts at the Treasury, and the salaries of the treasurer and secretary for ten years were forfeited to the Crown. Separate companies were incorporated for the Shannon, Barrow, Boyne, Newry, and Tyrone Navigations, and to them were given, with the property and tolls, the rights and privileges lately appertaining to the suppressed Inland Board. The breaking up of this establishment, however, which threw the various works in progress on their own resources, created considerable confusion, and greatly distressed those connected with their execution. Petitions for relief were addressed to the Irish Parliament, and led to the passing of the Act 29 Geo. III., c. 33, empowering the government to issue debentures against the revenues accruing or likely to accrue. To the Barrow Navigation was allotted £20,000; to the Shannon Navigation from Limerick to Killaloe

£8,300; to the Grand Canal Company, for an extension of the Shannon near Banagher, £57,100; to the same company, for an extension to the Liffey, £10,000; to the Royal Canal Company, for a canal from Dublin to Turmanbarry, on the Shannon, £66,000; to the Boyne Navigation Company, for a canal from Drogheda to Trim, £12,500; to the Newry Navigation Company, £4000; for a canal from Oberstown to Kilcullen, £2,400; and for another from Belturbet to Lough Erne, £5,100. Including £101,073 appropriated to the improvements of the several Irish ports and harbours, there were raised by taxes, loans, and grants since the third year of the reign of George II. to the period of the Legislative Union, for the purposes of constructing canals, and improving inland navigation generally, £1,082,349; which, considering the then value of money, shows the extreme liberality of the Irish parliament in contributing towards the improvement and prosperity of the country. Among the other inducements put forth by the English minister to render the union palatable to the Irish nation, was a grant of half a million towards the promotion of public works. The expenditure was intrusted, as formerly, to commissioners, under the name of Directors General of Inland Navigation, who considered the grant more as a matter of patronage to sustain their ascendancy prerogatives than for the benefit of the country. Up to 1810 they did nothing but receive their salaries and squander a large portion of the amount in selfish and corrupt practices. They now proposed a series of general surveys in various parts of the country; but with the view more to serve the personal interests of certain noblemen and gentlemen, than to promote the general prosperity of the nation. There was, no doubt, much useful and interesting information acquired, but at an enormous expense, and no practical measure resulted therefrom. In 1811 the Royal Canal Company failed, under the most disgraceful circumstances of fraud, and the Board of Inland Navigation was charged with being privy thereto, and many expositions took place to show its incapacity and corruption. An *exposé* of its stewardship of the half million grant up to March, 1811, was published, when it appeared, that there had been expended—

For the expenses of the establishment and the four Navigations in its charge	£	s.	d.
	172,238	17	11½
The Royal Canal Company had obtained of it	98,831	6	7
„ Grand Canal Company (to improve the Middle Shannon)	52,231	17	8
„ Barrow Navigation Company	41,881	8	9½
„ Corporation of Dublin (to improve that Port)	15,463	18	3½
Applications granted but not paid	£9,875	0	0
In the Bank of Ireland	9,147	10	6½
Poundage and bills at the Treasury	5,587	10	2½
Balance not received or apportioned up to March, 1811	94,742	10	0
	£500,000	0	0

The next great experiment for the improvement of the country was, in the commencement, directed exclusively to the Shannon. In 1831, Mr. Spring Rice, now Lord Monteagle, presided over a Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to inquire into the state of Ireland towards its improvement; and having derived an extensive and valuable fund of general information connected therewith, an Act, the 1st & 2nd William IV., c. 33, was passed, by which the Board of Inland Navigation was dissolved, and a Chief and two other Commissioners appointed in its room, with enlarged salaries and extended powers. The Chief Commissioner (Sir John Burgoyne) had an allowance of £1,200 a year, and the other Commissioners £600 a year each: there were attached to this Board a secretary with three clerks, an accountant with two, and an engineer, who also acted as architect. It assumed the name of *The Board of Public Works*, and costs the country yearly about £5,500, although the expense in the Parliamentary Estimates annually is only put down at £2,700: the remainder must be derived from some other source—probably the Consolidated Fund. It commenced its labours with a fund of £500,000 at its disposal, and subsequent Acts of Parliament extended its duties, and gave it an immense range of patronage, influence, and control over every public work that required government aid. This board, which has been in existence since 1832, does not appear to have given much satisfaction in Ireland. Almost in all instances where it has advanced money to forward public works, it has conditioned that it should be expended under its direction and management, and that it should have a prior claim to all other creditors; this had an

embarrassing effect, and companies and individuals who borrowed money from it invariably paid it as expeditiously as possible. During the first twelve years of its stewardship it expended £52,808 19s. 5d. on salaries and law expenses, the latter amounting to £5,515 5s., by no means a convincing proof that it was managing the extensive affairs placed in its hands satisfactorily.

The twenty-first report of this board was presented to parliament in 1853, giving details of its proceedings to the following effect:—

Public Buildings.—Plans and specifications have been prepared for a female convict prison adjoining Mountjoy prison, to be conducted on the separate system, and provide accommodation for 360 persons, to cost £37,900.

Lunatic Asylum buildings at Cork, Killarney, and Kilkenny, are finished and occupied, and those at Omagh, Mullingar, and Sligo, are in progress. A contract has been entered into for a new infirmary for the constabulary in Phoenix Park. Plans have been presented for the intended new building to accommodate the customs, inland revenue, and post-office departments at Belfast, so that the business of all may be carried on in one building. The coast-guard and constabulary stations, and custom-houses round Ireland have been repaired and maintained as usual. The fitments of the extensive new library and other necessary works at Maynooth College remain unexecuted for want of funds, the original grant of £30,000 being expended.

Roads.—The roads placed under the management of the board have been kept in efficient repair at an average of 8½d. a perch, or £11 5s. per mile.

Piers and Harbours.—All the piers and harbours towards which grants have been sanctioned have been completed. At King's Town a large portion of the Traders' Wharf for steamers has been commenced.

Inland Navigation.—On the Shannon several works of improvement and repair, tending more particularly to deepen the navigable channel, are now in progress. The amount of tolls received in 1851

was £2,142 10s. 9d.; and in 1852, £2,012 16s. 9d.: decrease, £129 14s. The works on the Boyne, Tyrone, and Maig navigation are in fair order, and the tolls received, with the exception of the latter, are equal to their cost of maintenance.

Loans and Grants.—The sums placed in charge of the Board of Works, stand thus: total loans sanctioned, £8,092,844: total issued to the 5th January, 1853, £6,724,367: total receipts to the Exchequer, £2,212,800: unissued 5th January, 1853, £1,368,477: total grants sanctioned, £3,102,867.

Landed Property Improvement.—The total sum applied for to 31st December, 1852, was £4,106,209; loans sanctioned, £1,883,293; balance, £116,707: loans since recommended, £30,538; leaving an unappropriated balance of £86,169. The gross amount of instalments issued since the commencement, £1,300,254. During the same period there was expended on thorough drainage, subsoiling, and forming roads, £997,650; and the number of acres drained was 145,560, of which 17,000 acres were drained in 1852, at an average cost of £4 10s. per acre. A great portion of the drained land has been subsoiled, the expense of new stone and earth fences has been considerable, and much has been done in clearing rocky land. In the drainage of lands, the use of pipe-tiles, with collars, in place of broken stone, has been adopted with considerable success. Loans have been granted for the erection of farm-buildings, in sixty-seven cases, amounting to £25,650. In connexion with the Land Improvement Acts, the recent Act, 15 & 16 Vic., c. 34, authorizes the issue of loans, for erecting buildings suitable as scutch-mills for flax, and for the formation of water-courses and weirs necessary for providing water-power for mills. The loans granted for the improvement of the land have been distributed so as best to relieve the pressure of agricultural distress. Up to the end of 1852, about 145,660 acres of land have been drained under the Drainage Acts. They are some of the richest alluvial soils in the country, heretofore flooded from three to six months in the year, yielding in most instances precarious crops, and in some cases valueless; and there can be no doubt that the improvements effected by means of loans have been precursory to extensive alterations in the agriculture of

the country, by the general introduction of green crops, and an improved system of alternate husbandry : while the lands reclaimed from the sea, drained lakes, cut-out bogs and marshes, are an absolute addition to the productive surface of the country. The Act 13 & 14 Vic., c. 31, authorized the advance of a further loan of £800,000 for the extension, and promotion of drainage, and other works of public utility. Operations have been commenced in 121 districts, containing about 336,000 acres. In ninety-three of these districts the works are complete, or nearly so. In thirteen they are in progress, and the works are suspended in fifteen for want of sufficient secondary assents. The quantity of land relieved up to 31st December, 1852, was 192,058 acres ; in 1853, there were 12,927 acres drained, and in progress of draining, 130,000 acres. The preliminary expenses, expenditure on works, interest on borrowed money, and all other purposes, for eleven years, amounted to £1,694,791. Deducting from which £43,175, being the amount of preliminary expenses in new districts, and credit for plant and tools transferred to other services, the net total expended on districts on which works have been commenced, or final notices issued, is £1,651,616, of which £181,346 has been disbursed from the payment of interest on borrowed money. The *maximum* number of men employed per *diem*, taking the average for a month for the year 1847, was 20,000 ; in 1848, 17,000 ; in 1849, 17,500 ; in 1850, 25,222 ; in 1851, 20,028 ; and in 1852, 11,870. The following is an abstract of the seventy-four awards made final to the end of 1852, and the repayments thereon :—

Area of Catch- ment or Bain Basin. Acres.	Area of Flood Lands Drained. Acres.	Increase in the value of the Lands. £.	Half- Yearly Instal- ment to pay Costs. £.	Charg- ed to Counties. £.	Charg- ed on Lands. £.	Average Cost per Acre for Drain- ing. £.	Repay- ments to 31st Dec., 1852. £.
797,807	64,192	21,175	9,108	16,236	254,029	3 19s. 1½d.	81,965

The Act for the Sale of Encumbered Estates provides for these charges, and estates so sold are subject to them. To make parties coming into that court aware of them in districts completed, the Commissioners of Encumbered Estates have been furnished with copies of all final awards, and will continue from time to time to be so, with new awards made. In districts where the works are not

yet completed, parties must purchase, subject to charges to be made in future awards. Periods varying from twelve to twenty-three years are allowed for the repayments, by half-yearly instalments.

RELIGION AND EDUCATION.—To review or discuss these most important and all-absorbing questions in their different bearings, would require more space than is prescribed to this work; and, therefore, an outline or sketch is all that can be given here.

The Protestant, or Established Religion by law, previous to the passing of the Church Temporalities Act, 3 & 4 William IV., c. 37, in Ireland, consisted of four archbishoprics, and eighteen bishoprics, producing then an estimated revenue of about £150,000 per annum, of which sum about £100,000 was derived from lands. The revenue of the deans and chapters was £23,600, of which was expended £21,400, leaving the deans and chapters £2,200. The number of other benefices was 1,401, and their income upwards of £580,000: the total revenue of the Irish Established Church being £732,200. By parliamentary returns then furnished, it appears, notwithstanding this immense income, that in 41 of these benefices, the Protestant incumbent had no congregation whatever; in 99 there were only from 1 to 20 Protestants; in 124, from 20 to 50; in 160, from 50 to 100; in 224, from 100 to 200; in 286, from 200 to 500; in 209, from 500 to 1,000; in 139, from 100 to 2,000; in 91, from 2,000 to 5,000; and in 12, upwards of 5,000. In 1812, there were no less than eleven of the archbishops and bishops, brothers of temporal peers. By this Act, two of the archbishoprics, Cashel and Tuam, were reduced to bishoprics, and the kingdom was divided into two ecclesiastical provinces, denominated the northern and southern. The northern province comprised the sees of—

Armagh and Clogher, yearly income	£12,087
Meath and Clanmacnoise	4,068
Derry and Raphoe	8,000
Down and Connor, and Dromore	4,204
Kilmore, Achonry, and Elphin	6,253
Tuam Killala and Galway	4,600

£39,282

The southern province comprised the sees of—

Dublin, Glendalough, and Kildare, yearly income	£7,786
Osney, Leighlin, and Ferns	4,200
Cashel, Emly, Waterford, and Lismore	5,000
Cork, Cloyne, and Ross	2,498
Killaloe, Kilfenora, Clonfert, and Kilmacduagh	3,870
Limerick, Ardfer, and Aghada	4,973
	<u>£28,327</u>

This alteration to be made progressively on the demise of the bishops, whose sees are thus united. The total income of the two archbishops, and the ten suffragan bishops, is £67,539. In 1833, the revenues of the suppressed bishoprics, with those of suspended dignities and benefices, and unappropriated tithes, were vested by the Act in a board of ecclesiastical commissioners created by it, and to be appropriated by them to the augmentation of poor livings; the building of glebe-houses; the building and repairing of churches which had been previously defrayed by a vestry-cess, or church-rate. The revenues of the suppressed sees for the year ending 1st August, 1851, were £46,447 18s. 2d.; and for the year 1852, £50,259 2s. 11d. The receipts of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners for 1852, was £111,355 5s.; and their expenditure, £110,297 6s. 2d. The amount of church repairs since the establishment of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, was—for ordinary purposes; £464,959 0s. 3d.; for extraordinary purposes, £30,702 6s. 6d. The aggregate amount received by them for nineteen years, from 1833 to 1852, both inclusive, was £2,103,547 6s. 7d., and their disbursements were £2,091,761 12s. 4½d. The sales made of perpetuities of church-lands vested in the commissioners have produced £579,965, including £69,182 12s. 7d. invested in mortgages. The value of these perpetuities is estimated at £1,200,000. There has been £80,000 of the loan from the Board of Works paid off, and £39,865 interest thereon: and there is still £20,000 of principal due, with proportionate interest until paid. The expense of the ecclesiastical commission, including its official establishment, amounts to upwards of £200,000—an immense sum considering the duties it has had to perform. The sums received under the head of tax on bishoprics and benefices was £11,785 15s. 3d. The tax

is levied on benefices and dignities whose net annual value exceeds £300, commencing at $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on that income, and rising on a graduated scale to $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on £405; and increasing $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on every additional £10 above that sum, until it reaches £1,195—all incomes over which pay 15 per cent. The tax on bishoprics, if the yearly income does not exceed £4,000, 5 per cent.; exceeding £4,000, and not exceeding £6,000, 7 per cent.; exceeding £6,000, and not £8,000, 10 per cent.; exceeding £8,000, and not £10,000, 12 per cent. In lieu of this tax the see of Armagh, on its next voidure, to pay £4,500 per annum. The Additional Curate Fund Society was formed in 1838, for making provisions for additional clergymen in parishes, with insufficient incomes, but requiring clerical superintendence. The number of parishes receiving assistance from the fund in 1851 was thirty-eight, with a population of 464,760 persons, of which 83,433 were Protestants.

The Catholic Religion.—The Roman Catholic hierarchy consists of four archbishops, whose sees are Armagh, Cashel, Dublin, and Tuam; and twenty-five bishops, who are appointed by the Pope; the selection is generally made from a list of names sent him by the clergy of the vacant diocese, and another by the archbishop and his suffragans. Every diocese has a dean and archdeacon; the former is appointed by the cardinal protector of Rome, the latter by the bishop, but these dignities are without jurisdiction or emolument. The Catholic clergy are supported solely by the voluntary contributions of their flocks. The episcopal revenues arise from the parish in which the bishop officiates, from marriage licences, and an annual payment of from £2 to £10 by the parochial clergy of the diocese. The number of parishes in 1853 was 2,148, and the incumbents are nominated exclusively by the respective bishops of the diocese. Their incomes arise in many parishes from yearly subscriptions by their parishioners; in others they are derived from fees on marriages, baptisms, Christmas and Easter dues, and from incidental voluntary contributions either in money or labour. All the Catholic churches and chapels are built by subscription. There are numerous monasteries and convents established in the country; the latter are supported principally by sums of from £300 to £500,

paid by those who take the vows ; by educating young ladies ; and by bequests and donations frequently awarded them. Both nuns and friars devote themselves to the education of the children of the poor, and the Sisters of Charity and Mercy, in particular, are most exemplary in their attendance, and the support they afford to the sick and indigent.

Presbyterian Religion.—The Presbyterian body is chiefly in Ulster, and is formed into congregations, each of which is under the ecclesiastical government of a court, called a session, consisting of the minister and elders of the congregation. The minister of each, with a lay elder, constitute a Presbytery, which has the charge of all the congregations within its bounds. A synod is composed of a minister and an elder from each congregation, is a higher court, and includes all the Presbyteries within its control. In the General Assembly each congregation is represented by its minister and an elder ; it is the supreme court, is presided over by a moderator, chosen annually, and regulates the ecclesiastical affairs of the body. The first Presbytery in Ireland was formed at Carrickfergus, in 1642, and gave rise to the synod of Ulster. The first synod of Munster was formed about 1660. The Presbytery of Antrim separated from the synod of Ulster in 1727, and the remonstrant synod in 1829. A number of Presbyterians formed themselves into a secession synod of Ireland in 1780. In 1840, the general and secession synods having united, assumed the name of the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in Ireland, comprising in 1851, 488 congregations, arranged under thirty-six Presbyteries. The ministers are supported by voluntary contributions ; the rents of seats or pews ; and the *Regium Donum*, or royal gift, granted first in 1672, by Charles II., who gave £600 of secret service money to be distributed in equal portions among them annually. The grant was discontinued towards the close of his reign, and during that of his successor, but was renewed by William III., who extended it to £1,200 a year. In 1784, the amount was increased to £2,200 ; and in 1792, to £5,000. In 1803, a classification was made according to the number of families in each congregation, and the amount of the ministers' voluntary stipend, by which those of the first class received £100 ; the second £75 ; and the third £50 annually. In

1831, the system of classification was altered, and thirty-seven ministers now receive £100 each, and 425, £75 each per annum, late Irish currency. The ministers who succeed these, in the first class, will only receive £75 each. The total grant for non-conforming, and other ministers in Ireland for the year ending 30th March, 1853, was £38,492. The remonstrant synod of Ulster was formed in May, 1830, in consequence of the separation of seventeen ministers, with their congregations, from the synod of Ulster, on the ground that, contrary to its usages and discipline, it required from its members, in 1827, submission to certain doctrinal texts and overtures of human invention. There are four Presbyteries, and twenty-seven congregations in this synod. The reformed Presbyterian synod of Ireland consists of four Presbyteries, and twenty-five congregations: they are all that remain of the old covenanters, and do not accept the *Regium Donum*. The united Presbytery, or synod of Munster, was formed in 1809, by the junction of the Presbytery of Dublin with that of Munster, and is one of the three non-subscribing Presbyterian bodies of Ireland; the other two being the Presbytery of Antrim, containing eleven congregations, and the remonstrant synod of Ulster. A few years ago the three bodies united to form the General non-subscribing Presbyterian Association of Ireland, for the promotion of their common principles—the right of private judgment, and non-subscription to creeds or confessions of faith. It meets triennially for the maintenance of these objects, but each body retains its respective name, and is governed by its own rules and regulations.

The Methodist Religion was founded in Ireland in 1739, by John Wesley in person. It consists of two branches, the Wesleyans and Primitive Wesleyans. The former co-operate with the conference in England, but both bodies hold annual conferences in Ireland. The Wesleyans have 14 districts, 58 chapels, 156 ministers, and 20,915 members. The Primitive Methodists have 10 districts, 28 chapels, 78 ministers, and 10,362 members. They send out many missionaries, some of whom can speak the Irish language. The Independents seem to be another branch of the Methodists, but they claim descent from Cromwell's puritanical soldiers.

The Baptist Religion was founded in Ireland about the year 1650, but it gradually declined in influence and exertion. A society was, therefore, formed in London in 1814, which resolved on employing itinerants, establishing schools, and distributing Bibles and tracts gratuitously in Ireland, which it has accomplished with partial success.

The Quakers, or Society of Friends, are said to have first come to Ireland in Cromwell's army—by no means a good school for industrial pursuits. George Fox visited the country in 1658; and it was in Ireland that the celebrated William Penn became a member of their body. In 1727 they issued, at their conference, in Dublin, the first public remonstrance against the slave-trade. In 1750 they had 101 meeting-houses, which, however, have since declined to about 40. There are many wealthy members of the body, particularly in Dublin and Clonmel; and wherever they settle, they generally take the lead in commercial and manufacturing pursuits.

THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS OF IRELAND are—the Dublin University; Trinity College; the Queen's Colleges at Belfast, Cork, and Galway, in connexion with the Queen's University, established in Dublin Castle, in 1850; St. Patrick's College, Maynooth; St. Kyran's, Kilkenny; St. Patrick's, Carlow; St. Jarlath's, Tuam; St. Patrick's, Thurles; St. Dominick's, at Esker, county Galway; St. John's, Waterford; St. Peter's, Wexford; St. Columb's, Londonderry; All Hallow's, Drumcondra; St. Mary's, Kingstown, Dublin; the Jesuit's Colleges of Clongowes Wood, and St. Francis Xavier, Dublin; the Belfast Academical Institution; St. Malachy's, Diocesan Seminary, Belfast; the National Education Schools; the Endowed Classical Society; the Mercantile Parochial, and Kildare Place Society Schools; St. Columba's College, near Dublin; St. Vincent's Ecclesiastical Seminary, Castlenock, Dublin; St. Colman's College, Violet Hill, Newry; Christian Brother's Schools, and the Sunday Schools, &c., &c.

The University of Dublin, or Trinity College, was founded in 1591, by letters patent, 34th Elizabeth, which appointed one provost,

three fellows, and three scholars, to constitute for ever a body corporate and politic, under the name of the "Provost, Fellows, and Scholars of the Holy and undivided Trinity of Queen Elizabeth, near Dublin." It increased from time to time, and now consists of a provost, seven senior fellows, twenty junior fellows, and seventy scholars; previous to 1841, all the fellows were bound to celibacy. The scholars are chosen from the under-graduates, who hold the situation until they can obtain the degree of master of arts. A model school has been long attached to the University. It possesses an extensive library of upwards of 106,000 printed volumes, and 1,500 interesting and select manuscripts. The printed works are increased annually by about 1,500 volumes. It has also a well-stocked botanical garden and museum. James I., in the eleventh year of his reign, granted the college a charter, in which he gave the corporate body the privilege of returning two burgesses to represent it in the Irish parliament, which the Act of Union reduced to one; and the Irish Reform Act again raised to two members. The constituency is about 1,500, and consists of the provost, fellows and scholars; and all ex-fellows, scholars, masters of arts, and those of higher degree, retain the right during life, by paying a fee of £5. It is possessed of 251,000 acres of land, from which it derives a yearly revenue of about £22,000; and from other sources, £48,048 5s. The provost is paid £2,000 a year; the college officers about £2,000; the fellows £25,400; professors and lecturers £40,000. This college is purely a Protestant establishment; for, although it was always open to the Presbyterians, and since 1794 to the Catholics, for educational purposes, yet neither can participate in the honours or emoluments attached to it, which are exclusively confined to Protestants. From a return furnished by order of the House of Lords in 1845, it appears there matriculated in this University, from 1829 to 1844, both years inclusive, 6,248 persons; of these only 511 were Catholics, and 5,737 Protestants.

The Queen's Colleges.—If Trinity College deserved condemnation for being too sectarian, and not adapted, therefore, to the purposes of national education, these colleges, which were in

some degree established to remove that objection, and were so regulated that no jealousy at least could exist as to their being more favourable to one religion than another, were nevertheless denounced as godless, and were quite as objectionable, in the opinion of many eminent men professing different religious tenets, as their predecessor. But the danger to be apprehended from the constitution of these colleges does not arise so much from the want of religious instruction, which all may receive at their respective places of worship, as the exclusive power vested in the government to regulate the proceedings and absorb the whole patronage and control over these institutions. Under an Act, the 8th & 9th Vic., c. 66, a charter was granted to the Queen's Colleges of Belfast, Cork, and Galway: the corporate or body politic to consist of a president, a vice-president, and twenty professors, whose number may be augmented to thirty by the crown. They are divided into three faculties: first, literary and scientific; second, medicine; and third, law. Each of these choose annually a dean of faculty, who presides over their meetings. A council, composed of the president, vice-president, and the four deans of faculty, make regulations not provided for by the statutes, arrange the course of instruction, and preserve discipline, and receive fees and other sources of revenue. The other officers are the registrar, bursar, librarian, and curator of the museum. The supreme authority is vested in the Board of Visitors appointed by the crown. These colleges were opened for the admission of students in October, 1849, and for the four years ending June, 1853, the number of admissions were—

	BelMast.	Cork.	Galway.
Matriculated	405	410	358
Non-matriculated	353	136	21
	<hr/> 758	<hr/> 546	<hr/> 379—Total 1683.

The Queen's University in Ireland was founded by letters patent, 15th August, 1850, with power to grant degrees in the faculties of arts, medicine, and law, to students who have completed their studies in the Queen's Colleges in Belfast, Cork, or Galway. It consists of a chancellor and senate nominated by the crown, and

to hold office during pleasure (the Earl of Clarendon was the first Chancellor); to be a corporation with perpetual succession; to sue and be sued, and hold lands, the profits thereon to amount to no more than £10,000 per annum. The senate to meet at Dublin Castle for holding examinations and granting degrees to take place annually. The three Queen's Colleges to be colleges of the university, and the professors to be professors of the same, but not to be under the superintendence of the senate further than the registration of degrees and faculties. The senate held its first sitting 19th June, 1851, when it was resolved that the university should have its seat and hold its meetings at Dublin Castle, and the regulations which had been prepared by the councils of the Queen's Colleges of Belfast, Cork, and Galway, for the course of studies to be pursued by students there for degrees, were submitted to the senate, pursuant to the provisions of the charter. A seal for the university was approved of, and a code of bye-laws adopted by the senate, and sanctioned by the Lord-Lieutenant, as required by the charter. At meetings of the senate in October, 1852 and 1853, degrees and diplomas were conferred on the candidates from the Queen's Colleges: Belfast 35, Cork 31, Galway 14. Degrees granted by the Queen's University are not liable to stamp-duty.

Maynooth College.—This college was founded in 1795 by an Act of the Irish Parliament which passed both Houses without a dissentient voice: a sum of £8,000 was annually voted for its maintenance up to 1807, when £5,000 additional was voted for the enlargement of the buildings. The amount of the annual vote from 1808 to 1813 was £8,928. The total amount of bequests to the college, including sums funded for courses, was £31,681, besides all the fee-simple estates of the late Lord Dunboyne, which now produce to the college £460 per annum. The entrance-fees and pensions of the students, from 1813 to 1844, amounted to more than £84,000. The number of students increased with the enlargement of the buildings from 50 to 250. By the Act 8th & 9th Vic., c. 25, the college was placed on a new footing, and permanently endowed for the maintenance and education of 500 students, and of 20 senior scholars on the Dunboyne foundation; which has been since

that time the number of students. Besides providing for the annual cost of commons, for these 520 students, and salaries to the president, superiors, and professors, the Act also vests £30,000 in the hands of the Commissioners of Public Works, for the erection of the buildings necessary to accommodate the increased number of students. No applicant can be received as a student unless he is designed for the priesthood in Ireland, that he is sixteen years of age, and recommended by the bishop of the diocese in which he lives, and that he answers satisfactorily at his entrance examination. The ordinary course of studies requires eight years—the first two are devoted to the Greek and Latin classics, rhetoric, mathematics, English composition, and historical books of the Bible. The following year logic, moral philosophy: the French language, and mathematics are studied, &c., &c.

The Colleges of Kilkenny, Carlow, Tuam, and Thurles, are all founded and patronised by the Roman Catholic bishops, for the education of Catholics exclusively. A description of the Kilkenny (St. Kyran's) will suffice for the others. It is divided into two departments: one ecclesiastical, the other lay. In the first, none are admitted who are not candidates for the priesthood: the number of students about fifty. The other admits boys of every other denomination, and could easily accommodate the same number of boarders, but they seldom exceed twenty. The day scholars are about fifty. It is supported principally by the students, the boarders paying £21, and the day scholars in the lay school £4 14s. per annum. These colleges, with the Schools of Medicine, the Royal College of Surgeons, the Apothecaries' Hall, the Richmond Hospital, School and Theatre of Anatomy; Peter Street, Stevens', Meath, St. Vincent's, Mercer's, and Combes' Hospitals, all in Dublin; the Cork School of Medicine, and North and South Infirmaries, and the Queen's County Infirmary, are in connexion with the University of London, and the students from them are entitled to claim degrees and certificates from it, on proving themselves possessed of the necessary qualifications.

The Jesuits' College, at Clangowes Wood, has been most successful, and is a further confirmation of the great ability that order

possesses in the instruction of youth. The number of students exceed two hundred, and the courses in science and literature taught there are in conformity with the reputation for learning of its founders.

The Royal Belfast Academical Institution.—This establishment, which may be well called an University, is principally supported by the Presbyterians of Ulster. The children of that body, previous to 1809, were almost invariably sent to the Scotch universities for education; which being found inconvenient and anti-national, it was determined, about that period, to establish a seminary at home to instruct the Presbyterian youth of Ireland. A sum of £30,000 was raised for the purpose, of which the late Marquis of Hastings contributed £5,000. In 1810 an act of incorporation was obtained, by which subscribers of 100 guineas are entitled to nominate each a student to be educated free of expense, and subscribers of £22 10s. are constituted proprietors, and eligible to be members, or vote for members, of the board of management; which consists of the president, four vice-presidents, the secretary, treasurer, and twenty managers. The president is elected for one year or a longer term by the board of proprietors, who also elect the vice-presidents and managers, to remain in office four years after the first election. The secretary and treasurer are annually elected. There are eight visitors and three auditors. A general meeting of proprietors is held every July, to elect officers to fill the vacancies, receive the report of the managers, and transact any other business laid before them. At this meeting the votes are taken by ballot, and all bye-laws to be made, altered, or repealed, notice thereof is required to be inserted in the Belfast newspapers at least thirty days previous thereto. The board of management superintends its political economy and monetary affairs, and makes rules and regulations for its government; and, with another, the board of the faculty of arts, composed of all the professors, regulates its discipline, liable, however, to the approval of the general board of proprietors and visitors. Every professor makes a solemn declaration, on being appointed, not to interfere or influence the religious tenets of any pupil under his instruction. It is supported by a parliamentary grant of £2,000 per annum, which, with occasional

subscriptions, constitute its income. The education of ministers for the presbytery is more particularly provided by an establishment which acts in concert with the Academy, and which is called the General Assembly College. The eight theological professors receive from the government an allowance of £2,000 a year.

The College of Columba, near Dublin, has been formed in strict conformity with the principles of the established church. It provides especially for the education of students to be employed in the ministry in that part of the country where the Irish or vernacular tongue is still spoken. Scholarships have been founded in this college for the sons of the clergy; but on condition that they learn to read and speak the Irish language.

The Sunday School Society was formed in 1809, when there were 80 schools in operation. In 1818 the number increased to 554, with 59,888 pupils. In 1830 there were 2,418 schools, and 196,396 pupils; and in 1853 there were 3,008 schools, and 224,504 pupils: of which there were in Ulster 1,907, Leinster 469, Munster 400, and Connaught 232. The receipts for the year consisted of collections and subscriptions in Ireland amounting to £502 2s. 5d., in England £1,293 18s. 10d, and Scotland £307 17s. 1d. These schools have been principally successful in Ulster: the population in the other provinces being chiefly Catholic, do not attend, as they entertain an impression that their object is more to interfere with their religious tenets than to instruct them in letters.

The Kildare Place Society was formed in 1814, but did not come into extensive operation until 1817. The purposes for which it was started were declared in its prospectus to be "To publish moral, instructive, and entertaining books, fitted to supplant the objectionable ones in use, and to supply schools in connexion with the society, gratuitously, and to all purchasers, at cost prices, spelling books and other school requisites—and to encourage, by gratuities and not by salaries, such masters and mistresses as appear deserving." Upon the credit of these professions it obtained at first general encouragement. The Commons Committee

of 1838 reported that these schools were open to all sects of Christians for education. It was not until a later period, in consequence of differences on the reading of the Bible, that it was charged with a proselytising tendency. Its funds were in part derived from voluntary contributions, but more considerably from parliamentary grants. In 1814-15 it obtained £6,980 from the legislature, and in the subsequent years it gradually increased until, in 1831, it reached £30,000, having received in all £250,469 of public money. It was ascertained in 1824, from a report of the Commissioners of Inquiry into the State of Public Education, that out of 400,348 children whose education was paid for by their parents or guardians, 81,060 were Protestants, and 319,288 Catholics; while of the 56,201 children educated by the Kildare Place Society, 26,237 were Protestants, and only 29,964 Catholics, and they recommended the grants of money for the education of the poor to be vested in a board nominated by government, under arrangements that would prevent any interference with religious tenets. This recommendation was reported by a committee to the House of Commons in 1828, and again in 1830; but, although favourably entertained, the grant to the Kildare Place Society was not withdrawn until 1833, and the society then gradually declined. The receipts for the year 1849 were £2,620 11s. 11d., and the expenditure £2,693 6s. 6½d.

Board of National Education.—In 1833, the public money granted for the education of the Irish poor of every religious denomination, was entrusted to the Lord-Lieutenant, and Commissioners were appointed by the crown, to superintend its distribution, who were named the Commissioners of National Education. The principle on which they act is, that the schools shall be open to all sects; the pupils not to be required to attend at any religious exercise, or receive any religious instruction that their parents or guardians do not approve of; and that sufficient opportunity shall be afforded, when the pupils are to receive such approved-of instruction separately. The duty of the commissioners is to guard against any infraction of these fundamental principles, and to establish regulations so as best to secure the general effect of the

system, and in granting or refusing assistance to applicants for erecting or maintaining schools, or furnishing them with books or other requisites. By a strict adherence to these rules, the schools have increased from year to year; and the various books published by its sanction, are not only used in the schools, but are in demand for public instruction in Great Britain and the colonies. In 1845, the commissioners were incorporated, with power to hold lands to the yearly value of £40,000; to receive gifts and bequests; to erect and maintain schools; to grant leases for three lives, or thirty-one years; to have a common seal, &c., &c.: power being vested in the Lord-Lieutenant to fill up all vacancies; to appoint additional members, provided the number did not exceed fifteen, and to remove members at pleasure. The commissioners, in making grants for building national school-houses, have taken upon themselves the trust for the public, and the charge of repairing them, leaving the local managers the right they now possess as to the appointment and removal of teachers, and the general regulations of the schools. In 1833 the first grant of public money was given to these schools, and amounted to £25,000; the number of schools was 789; and the pupils 107,042. In 1842, they increased to 2,721 schools, and 319,792 pupils, and the parliamentary grant was extended to £55,000. In 1852, they increased still further, the number of schools being 4,875, pupils 540,310, and the grant £182,073.

The following shows the provincial state of these schools on 31st December, 1852.

Provinces.	No. Schools.	Attendance of Pupils.	Average No. in each School.	Schools Building.	Expected Attendance.	Suppressed.	Total Schools.
Ulster	1,892	151,394	80.0	13	1,250	0	1,905
Leinster ..	1,176	141,942	100.7	4	451	4	1,184
Munster ..	1,167	173,020	148.1	35	3,390	0	1,202
Connaught.	640	73,954	115.5	23	2,385	9	672
	<hr/> 4,875	<hr/> 540,310	<hr/> 110.83	<hr/> 75	<hr/> 7,475	<hr/> 13	<hr/> 4,963

On the 31st March, 1852, the pupils in attendance on them were composed of 24,684 Protestants, 424,717 Catholics, 40,618

Presbyterians, 1,908 other Protestant Dissenters, and 1,091 whose religion was not stated: total 493,018. On the 1st November, 1852, of the 4,795 schools then in operation, 4,434 were under 1,853 separate managers; 175 under joint management; 141 were in workhouses and gaols, and 45 of which the commissioners are patrons: 1,247 of these schools were under the superintendence of 710 managers of the Protestant, and 3,187 under 1,143 managers of the Catholic communion. Of 5,822 female teachers in the service of the Board, 31st March, 1852, there were 362 Protestants; 760 Presbyterians; 49 Protestant Dissenters; and 4,653 Catholics. The amount of salaries paid teachers for the year 1852 was £76,485; and teachers of agricultural schools, monitors, workhouse and prison teachers' gratuity, £6,480: total £82,965. The number of teachers trained to the 31st December, 1852, was 3,420. District Model Schools have been opened at Newry, Ballymena, Clonmel, Dunmanway, Coleraine, Baliboro, Trim, Athy, and Galway. The number of pupils on the rolls of the Model Schools in Marlborough Street on 30th September, 1852, was 1,479; and on those of the West Dublin, 621. The management of the model-farm at Glasnevin proceeds satisfactorily; and there is an increasing desire on the part of the patrons of schools, and other landed proprietors, to obtain admission for pupils into it. On the 1st November, 1852, forty-five pupils and three teachers attended the establishment. The pupils receive literary as well as agricultural instruction. Twenty-two model agricultural schools are in full operation; three in practical operation; and two are building. The number of ordinary agricultural schools in each province on the 31st December, were—eleven in Ulster; seven in Munster; twelve in Leinster; and eight in Connaught. In 1850, there were only seven workhouse agricultural schools, but in December, 1852, there were twenty-three, affording instruction to 2,353 pupils. The question of uniting industrial with literary education is one of the greatest importance, and in no country is it more required than in Ireland, where there are so few opportunities of acquiring mechanical skill, or a knowledge of manufactures. It would lead to many advantages, not only in the intellectual improvement of the people, but also in contributing to their physical maintenance,

their comforts, and above all, their independence, to be derived from self-reliance and personal exertion. In the present session, 1854, the subject has been brought under the consideration of the House of Commons by Mr. Tristram Kennedy, the popular and liberal representative of Louth, on the vote that £263,043 be applied to purposes of public education in Ireland. Mr. Kennedy complained "that out of the 4,875 national schools giving literary education to 544,604 pupils, there were only 93 of these schools in which industrial instruction was given to 2,663 pupils, and that it was solely confined to agriculture. This was a small number compared with those who sought instruction in the female industrial schools established in Ireland in 1850. In forty of these schools there were 17,312 children instructed, which enabled them to earn from two to eight shillings a week. These schools were, however, confined to fourteen counties, and eighteen were left destitute of any. If the government would only encourage industrial education in Ireland, it would find the people there most anxious to avail themselves of it, and it was quite as necessary to teach them how to live as how to read. If the object was to educate, instruct, and elevate the condition of the people, then every national school ought to be an industrial one in some branch or other, and the rising generation should have thus afforded them facilities for acquiring knowledge calculated at the same time to develop the industrial resources of the country, and promote in them habits of self-reliance and industry." There is no person more competent to form a correct opinion on this subject than Mr. Kennedy, by whose humane exertions a large and densely populated estate escaped for a considerable time the desolating ravages which others in the same quarter presented, resulting from the wholesale suppression of the small tenancies thereon. Unable to carry out his philanthropic views, he retired from the irksome responsibility of being obliged to have recourse to measures of which he did not approve, but leaving behind him a lasting memorial of the industrial disposition he inculcated, and the employment he obtained for the females of a remote locality, in manufacturing an article which has been prosecuted there with such skill and ingenuity, as to extort universal admiration at the late Dublin exhibition. It is to be hoped that Mr. Kennedy will persevere in his laudable exertions to bring

Ministers are disposed, of course, to take advantage of the war, or any other excuse, to withhold any further concession of political rights to the people. But as this new reform measure must of necessity come under the consideration of Parliament in the session of 1855, it may not be amiss to direct public attention to the present state of the Irish representation, and the great injustice perpetrated against Ireland, not only by the Act of Union, but by every succeeding Act that made any change in the representation of the country.

REPRESENTATION OF IRELAND.—By the Act of Union, Ireland was represented in the united parliament by 4 spiritual and 28 temporal peers in the House of Lords; and in the House of Commons by 100 representatives, of which 64 were returned by 32 counties; 35 by 33 cities and boroughs; and 1 by the Dublin University. This was an act of flagrant injustice towards Ireland, despoiled of its native parliament: the 100 members that were granted to represent the country in the united parliament, was neither in proportion to its population or importance otherwise, as compared with England, which had then 513 representatives, from which there was not a single member deducted to meet the diminished and comparatively ineffective number appointed to represent Irish interests in a house so partially and unfairly constituted. The Act of Union in a great measure extinguished the borough representation, but the counties were allowed their full number; and their constituencies were not interfered with until 1829, when the latter were in a great measure swept away by the disfranchising of the forty-shilling freeholders, who possessed the right of voting under terminable leases, as well as in perpetuity. This was a sacrifice made at the shrine of Catholic Emancipation; and to render that measure at all palatable to its opponents, the Irish franchise was rendered so stringent, and became so shamefully defective, that new measures were obliged to be introduced to give it even the semblance of a representative character. The great question of Parliamentary Reform, which had so long agitated England, was obliged to be conceded at length to the will and determination of an united people; and Lord Grey's administration, in 1832, introduced an extensive measure of Parliamentary Reform in the Commons; which,

however, was only applicable to Great Britain. And here another act of injustice was inflicted on Ireland by resisting or withholding its claims to a participation in this measure of reform in the first instance. Had it been one of coercion, that country would have been selected as the proper place for its experimental operation. Notwithstanding, however, that Ireland was left out of the bill, O'Connell, and the other Irish liberal members, gave not only it, but the Municipal Reform Bill the following year, their most strenuous support ; and it was then admitted on all hands, that if the Irish members had not adhered so firmly and disinterestedly to the minister, he would have failed in carrying these measures through parliament. What was the return made for such generous devotion ? The Irish Reform Act was delayed to 1836 ; and the Irish Municipal Act to 1840 ; and when passed they were most defective, and contributed little to the political power of the Irish people. The Municipal Act, with the exception of Belfast and Londonderry, gave the other corporate towns neither power nor influence in the management of their own affairs, which were left in a great measure in the hands of irresponsible persons. In respect to the Reform Act, it was to all intents and purposes a national insult. The census returns of 1831, taken the year previous to the English Reform Act passing the legislature, gives England and Wales a population of 14,051,986 persons ; Scotland 2,405,610 ; and Ireland 7,767,401 persons. England, notwithstanding the great excess of representation which it had over both Ireland and Scotland, still retained 500 out of the 513 members of which it consisted, giving Scotland the benefit of eight additional members, while Ireland, which had increased so enormously in its population since the Union, was allowed only five, and one of these was given to Trinity College to support exclusively the Established Church, which it was admitted was fast falling to decay. If population is the basis or standard, as it ought to be, to regulate the representation of the three countries, then England should have had 382, Ireland 211, and Scotland 65 representatives. Here is another proof of partial legislation and gross injustice to Ireland. Scotland actually got its fair proportion all but 12, while Ireland was 111 members short of what its population entitled it to. How stands the case now ? England and Wales contained, in 1851, a popu-

lation of 17,927,609 persons; Ireland 6,551,970; and Scotland 2,888,742. England should therefore have 431 representatives, and Scotland 69, its present number being 16 short of its proportion; while Ireland, with its decrease of 1,215,431 persons on 1831, and 1,623,154 on the population of 1841, would still be entitled to 158 representatives—its present number 105, being 53 short of its fair proportion. Can this flagrant injustice be reconciled with the declarations made by public men of all parties, that the people of both countries are entitled to equal laws, and to their impartial administration? and how is this to be accomplished, when the country itself is not equally and impartially represented? The 13 & 14 Victoria, c. 69, was passed in 1850, to amend the representation, and, in addition to persons qualified to register and vote in counties, occupiers of any tenement rated in the last poor-rate of £12 and upwards, are also entitled to vote, as well as owners of certain estates of the value of £5. In boroughs the right of voting is confined to occupiers rated in the last poor-rate of £8 and upwards. By 13 & 14 Victoria, c. 68, the polling at contested elections is to continue in counties two days, and in cities and boroughs only one day. The number of electors registered under the new Act in January, 1851, was 135,245 in counties, and 28,301 in cities and boroughs. In 1853 there were 149,854 electors in the former, and 29,634 in the latter, eligible to vote: of these there were 19,719 rated householders, 6,530 burgesses or freemen, and 3,385 of other qualifications—what these latter consist of the return leaves it to the ingenuity of the public to imagine. Lord John Russell has an English and Irish Reform Bill prepared, and although that for Ireland has not yet seen the light of day, it is pretty well ascertained that it is a most illiberal measure, and calculated to make the representation there even worse than it is at present. By suppressing a number of small boroughs in England, Lord John will be enabled to give a further extension of representation to densely populated districts; and he is reported to have reserved for Scotland three new representatives, while Ireland, which is infinitely worse represented, is not to obtain one, or a single advantage of any kind from the bill; but, on the contrary, the few boroughs which the Act of Union recognized, are now to be disfranchised, and the counties in which

they are situated are not even to get the representatives which it is sought to deprive them of. It is contemplated by the bill to suppress all boroughs where the constituency is under 300 electors, or the population under 10,000; and to give the larger counties, such as Cork, Antrim, Tipperary, &c., the benefit of additional representation. Why the landed interest, which already returns three-fifths of the Irish representatives, is thus to be favoured at the expense of the commercial and trading community, is for Lord John Russell to explain when he brings forward his measure. But that such will be the consequence of this hopeful scheme, there cannot be a doubt. Take, for instance, one of these boroughs to be disfranchised, Dundalk, a seaport-town of considerable importance; but by the last parliamentary return of the number of electors registered in the Irish boroughs its constituency was only 294, of which 290 were rated householders, and only 4 freemen; and by the census returns of 1851, the population was 9,995, so that the constituency is six, and the population five under the favoured number; while the Dundalk workhouse, containing upwards of 500 persons, is just without the precincts of the borough, and if within, would save it from disfranchisement. The commercial boroughs of New Ross, Coleraine, Youghal, and Kinsale, are to undergo the same fate. Attempting to apply cataplasms to those impurities that have gangrened the representative system, when it is necessary to have recourse to the knife to cut them away, is the quintessence of political quackery. Nothing less than a full, free, and efficient measure of reform will satisfy the country, and that can only be accomplished by means of electoral districts, in which the whole population will be equally represented. If Ireland is really to be treated as an integral part of Great Britain, it should have its fair proportion of representatives in the National Assembly, without which it is impossible that any substantial good can be effected for that country. The Irish members in the legislature should never cease demanding it as a right, and the Irish constituencies should require a pledge from every candidate who seeks their suffrages, that he would annually support a measure of this kind; and an association should be formed for promoting this object, which is both legitimate and constitutional, and on which is based all other reforms in detail.

DUBLIN.

DUBLIN, the metropolis of Ireland, is, in population and extent, the second city of the United Kingdom, and ranks in importance as the sixth in Europe, having a greater population than Berlin, Madrid, Lisbon, Rome, Amsterdam, Brussels, Stockholm, Copenhagen, or Turin, all capital cities of independent European states. It is a county of a city, and is situated in $53^{\circ} 20' 38''$ N. latitude, and $6^{\circ} 17' 30''$ W. longitude. The circular road by which it is enclosed is about nine miles in extent. Its ancient boundary was 1,752A. 3R. 21P. Its parliamentary boundary, under the Corporate Reform Act, is 4,943A. 0R. 32P., and its municipal 3,807A. 2R. 15P. The castle, and that portion of the city adjoining it, was formerly surrounded by walls. It lies 292 miles N.W. of London, 138 miles W. of Liverpool, and 60 miles W. of Holyhead; and is situated on the river Liffey, which has its source in the Wicklow mountains; is increased in its course by the unimportant rivers the Dodder and the Falkan, and empties itself in Dublin Bay at the eastern extremity of the city. The population for the last two centuries was as follows:—

Years.	Persons.	Years.	Persons.	Years.	Persons.
1683....	64,483	1798. . .	182,370	1831....	204,155
1728....	146,075	1804....	167,899	1834....	240,274
1753....	128,570	1812....	176,610	1841....	232,726
1777....	137,208	1821....	186,851	1851....	258,361
119,183 males; 139,178 females; increase on 1841—26,635 persons.					

The population of 1834 was composed of 174,957 Catholics, 61,833 Protestants, 1,868 Presbyterians, and 1,615 of other religious persuasions. The females in 1851 exceeded the males by 19,995, or $16\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and Dublin is one of the few places in Ireland where the population increased in 1851. The number of inhabited houses was 22,276; uninhabited 1,920; and building 121: being

an increase on 1841 of 2,546 houses of all descriptions; and the poor-law valuation for 1851 was £531,079 10s. The municipal wards are fifteen in number: Arran Quay, Fitzwilliam, Inn's Quay, Mansion House, Merchants' Quay, Mountjoy, North City, North Dock, Rotundo, Royal Exchange, South City, South Dock, Trinity, Usher's Quay, and Wood Quay. The parishes are twenty in number: St. Andrew's, Anne's, Audeons, Bridget's, Catherine's, George's, James's, John's, Luke's, Mark's, Mary's, Michael's, Michan's, (Nicholas within,) (Nicholas without,) Paul's, Peter's, Thomas's, Werburg's, and Grange Gorman. There are also the liberties of Christ Church, St. Patrick's Deane, and Glasnevin. It is the seat of government, and an archiepiscopal see. Previous to the passing of the Municipal Reform Act, it was governed by a corporate body consisting of a lord mayor, 2 sheriffs, 24 aldermen, 124 common-councillors, 28 being sheriffs peers, and 96 representatives of the 25 civic guilds, with a recorder, and other municipal officers. It now consists of a lord mayor, chosen annually from the aldermanic body, or town-councillors; 15 aldermen and 45 town-councillors; the respective wards returning 1 alderman and 3 town-councillors. Its income arises from rents, tolls, customs, &c., which in 1816 amounted to £31,254, and in 1849 to £31,518. It returns two representatives to parliament, who are elected by a mixed constituency of rated householders and freemen, who in 1848 numbered 16,614; in 1849, 15,049; in 1851, 11,290; and the last return, furnished by order of the House of Commons, 16th August, 1853, makes the constituency as low as 10,172, of whom 3,417 were freemen. Dublin was called by the ancient Irish *Drum-coll-coil*, or the brow of the hazelwood; also *Bally-ath-cleath*, the town of the ford of hurdles. Ptolemy, in his map, places a town nearly under the same parallel, which he calls *Civitas Eblana*, in which no doubt the name of Dublin had its origin. But it is probable, that even long before his time, a city or town to some extent existed where Dublin now stands. It is recorded that the Milesian brothers, Heber and Heremon, in partitioning the country, drew a line from the Bay of Dublin to that of Galway, the south side of which comprised Leinster and Munster, falling to Heber; and the northern, embracing Ulster and Connaught, to Heremon. The southern division was called *Leath-Mogha*, and the northern

Leath-Cuin. Whenever the house of Heber was deprived of the monarchy in after times, it invariably contended for this partition. In the reign of Con of the hundred battles, who was of Heremonian descent, a division of this description took place between him and Eugene, King of Munster, of the Heberian line. The latter monarch, some years after this arrangement, visited Dublin, and finding that the commerce on the north side of the Liffey exceeded considerably that on the south, he complained that it was an infringement of the spirit of the treaty, which implied an equal distribution of the profits arising from the ports of Dublin and Galway; and insisted that the surplus revenue, which Con had been receiving for fifteen years, should be divided with him. This unreasonable demand caused a renewal of hostilities, which cost Eugene his life, and restored to Con the chief sovereignty of the kingdom. As early as the reign of Tighernmas, mines of copper, lead, and iron were worked with success in the neighbourhood of Dublin, and one of gold was discovered near the Liffey, from which much valuable ore was extracted. Nuggets of that metal, in more modern times, have been occasionally found near its source, which has left an impression that a mine of gold somewhere exists among the picturesque Wicklow hills. A.D. 443 St. Patrick converted Alpin Mac Eochaidh, King of Dublin, to Christianity. He was baptized at a well on the south side of the Liffey, probably that in the precincts of Trinity College, which suddenly dried up in 1726. In 798 a fleet of Danes or Ostmen sailed up the Liffey, and gave the country on the north side the name of Fingall, or the land of the white strangers; they enclosed the city with walls, and Turgesius, the Danish tyrant, made it the seat of his government. A.D. 853, Amlave and Aulaffe arrived in Dublin with an immense force from Norway, and all the Danes in Ireland submitted to their power: they made a truce with the Irish princes, which, however, soon terminated, and war continued to rage with unabated fury. Dublin was the stronghold of the Danes almost from the period of their first incursions into Ireland, and they held it, with short intermissions, from the eighth to the twelfth century; during which time no fewer than twenty-five Ostmen or Danish kings governed it. Their early operations in the country, particularly while they remained pagans, were sanguinary, repacious and cruel—butchering

the defenceless natives without mercy, pillaging whatever was most valuable or portable, and destroying every other species of property that they could not carry away. Their spoil must have been very considerable, as they plundered indiscriminately wherever they went, not sparing even the churches or the shrines of the saints, which were then immensely rich, and abounded with costly ornaments of gold and silver. Whenever they were repulsed in their ravages, or defeated in the field, little of this plunder was recovered from them. They almost invariably despatched it to one of their sea-ports, such as Dublin, where their ships were always in requisition to carry it off to Norway or Denmark, should the place be in danger of falling into the hands of the Irish. The wealth they had thus accumulated, combined with their nautical skill and the settlements they had formed in the country, enabled them to direct their attention to commercial pursuits, of which the natives at that period had little or no knowledge, or were too proud or indifferent to embark in. Notwithstanding its being occasionally besieged and even destroyed by the Irish, Dublin was enriched, extended, and rendered a place of so much importance, that it ultimately became the capital of the kingdom. So decidedly was Dublin looked upon as specially belonging to the Danes, that the English and Norman monarchs descended from that race, occasionally extended laws to it which were made in England, when governed by them—such as Oswald's law; and the bishop appointed in 1084 to this see, received his consecration at the hands of the Archbishop of Canterbury, his countryman. About the year 944, the Danes of Dublin embraced the Christian faith, and built the Abbey of St. Mary's, although some suppose it to have been founded long previous thereto. This event, however, did not render their possession of any part of the kingdom palatable to many of the Irish princes, whatever effect it might have had upon the clergy; and it appears that in Kinnoth, the primate, they had a decided supporter. On the accession of Malachy II., of the Heremonian line, to the supreme sovereignty of Ireland, he proved himself worthy of his high descent by opposing the encroachments of the enemies of his country. The Danes of Dublin were then very formidable, and under the sons of Humphrey, a celebrated commander, they extended their ravages even to Tara, the seat of regal government.

There they were repulsed and defeated by Malachy, with the loss of five thousand of their best troops. Encouraged by this success, he formed an alliance with the King of Ulster to reduce the City of Dublin, the principal place of refuge for the Danes, when defeated in the field, and where they were constantly reinforced from Denmark and Norway. The allied sovereigns laid siege to the city with a numerous and well-disciplined army, which was bravely defended by the besieged ; but three days after the first attack, the Irish scaled the walls, and entered the city sword in hand. The violence so usual on such occasions was now, however, restrained by the monarchs, who were satisfied with their victory and the plunder it afforded. The King of Leinster, his children, and several hostages of the first rank, who had suffered a long and severe captivity, were liberated. The Danes by this defeat were reduced to great extremities, and obliged to accept whatever conditions the monarch of Ireland thought proper to impose : these were, that they should surrender all there conquests from the Shannon to the sea eastwards ; to refrain from all hostilities and incursions ; and to submit to the payment of a large tribute, for the fulfilment of which some of their most distinguished officers were given as hostages. The Danes, no doubt, were willing to save their lives and be permitted to hold possession of the city, and were, therefore, ready to accede to any terms of peace which Malachy might propose. But no sooner had they strengthened themselves by reinforcements of men and other supplies from Norway, and considered themselves once more on a footing to cope with the Irish, than they, in defiance of the late treaty, attempted to recover their former settlements and sway in the island. Hostilities were, therefore, recommenced, and Malachy defeated two of their most consummate commanders in succession, taking from the neck of one a collar of gold, and carrying off the sword of the other, as trophies of his victory. But after these exploits, he appears to have become quite inactive, devoting himself to a life of indolence and pleasure, so that the welfare of his country was sacrificed to his love of luxury and ease. The provincial kings, also, seem to have been sunk in a state of apathy, and wholly indifferent to their country's welfare, with the exception of Brian Boromy, King

of Munster. This prince, who from his childhood was resolutely opposed to those formidable enemies of his country, the Danes, and had never ceased harassing and chasing them from one extremity of the island to the other, was now become extremely popular with the people; and having obtained the confidence and support of the other provincial kings and chieftains, Malachy was deposed from the supreme authority, and Brian elected and crowned with all due magnificence at Tara, with the consent and approbation of a great majority of the chiefs and clergy of the kingdom, and to which Malachy himself assented, Brian confirming to him his old inheritance of Meath. This event took place in the year 1002, and when Brian was in the seventy-sixth year of his age. The increased power which it conferred, still further enabled him to curb more effectually the predatory and encroaching disposition of the Danes, of whom he in a short time cleared the country, and they were only allowed by sufferance to keep possession of Dublin, Wexford, Limerick, Waterford, and Cork: their commercial pursuits in these ports having been deemed by the sagacious monarch beneficial to the country at large. He also took the precaution of exacting securities for their allegiance, and a large annual tribute, of which a portion consisted of one hundred and fifty pipes of various sorts of wine delivered by the Danes of Dublin yearly, at his palace of Kincora, in the county Clare. Although the Danes, to all appearance were completely subdued, and their pretensions to dominion in Ireland effectually frustrated by the valour and policy of the Irish monarch, yet, no doubt, in the sea-ports they were secretly preparing themselves for any favourable circumstance that might arise to place their power in the ascendant once more. This opportunity was soon afforded them by means of a breach which occurred between Brian and Malmorda, King of Leinster, resulting from the pride and irascibility of the imperious Queen of Ireland, who was sister to the former prince, and a silly squabble at a game of chess between him and Mortogh, Brian's eldest son. The King of Leinster took such offence at what he deemed an insult, that he privately left Kincora, at which palace he was on a visit, and returning to his own kingdom, he summoned a convention of the chiefs of Leinster, who, highly incensed at the indignities put upon their monarch, which he artfully exagge-

rated, unanimously resolved to join the Danes when a sufficient force was collected, depose the aged monarch, place Malmorda on the throne, and restore these foreigners to their lost possessions. No sooner had the states of Leinster agreed to a resolution of hostilities, than Malmorda dispatched messengers to the King of Denmark, imploring his aid against the monarch of Ireland, whom he represented as an unprincipled and insatiable tyrant, and the inveterate enemy of the Danes, whom he had dispossessed of all their possessions, except a few of the sea-ports. The King of Denmark, who was but too well pleased to have an opportunity of again plundering the island, to make any inquiry into the truth of these allegations, cheerfully accepted the King of Leinster's invitation, equipped a fleet without delay, and embarked a force of 12,000 men under the command of his two sons, who landed safe in the port of Dublin. As soon as Malmorda had received this powerful aid, and had assurance that the Irish Danes would also co-operate with him, he sent a herald to Brian, with a declaration of war, and a challenge to decide the contest on the plains of Clontarf, in the immediate vicinity of Dublin. The Irish monarch, who was not ignorant of those extensive preparations to overthrow his authority and disturb the public peace, made every exertion that the urgency of the case required. All the provincial troops of Munster and Connaught were called out; and many chiefs and clans of Ulster voluntarily joined the aged monarch to resist the slavery and degradation to which their country was again likely to be exposed: even Malachy, the deposed monarch, contributed a force of 1500 Meath men to the grand army. The Danes, who were aware of the power and determination of their opponent, not content with the large force furnished by the King of Denmark, had themselves further reinforced by troops from Norway, Scotland, the Orkney Islands, Normandy, and even Britain. Brian had, therefore, to contend against the most formidable force that the Danes had ever concentrated in any part of the island. He put himself at the head of the Munster and Connaught forces, and was joined at Kilmainham by the other Irish auxiliaries, which gave him the command of an imposing force, nearly equal to the Danes, who had been joined by the King of Leinster, the Prince of Hy Falgie, and other

chieftains of that province. Having organized his army, he marched towards the plains of Clontarf, in conformity with Malmorda's challenge, where he encamped on the eve of Good Friday, in the year 1014. Brian, who had previously dispatched a select body of his Dalcasians to harass the territory of the King of Leinster under his son Donogh—was indisposed to attack the enemy previous to their return to the camp; he had also an objection to fight on so sacred a day as Good Friday. But the Admiral Bruidair, who commanded the Danish auxiliaries, had consulted an oracular idol in Scandanavia, which declared that if the engagement took place on Friday, Brian would most assuredly fall. He therefore attacked the Irish at daybreak on that morning, and the venerable monarch, having hastily formed his order of battle, addressed the army, pointing out the long continued tyranny and enormities of the Danes; he exhibited in his left hand a crucifix, and wielding his good sword in his right, he conjured them, through the mercies of Christ, who had suffered for them on that holy day, to summon up their utmost strength and fortitude, and extirpate for ever the base confederated pirates then before them. The battle lasted during the day; but Brian, from his great age, having attained his eighty-eighth year, had retired early to his tent, where he could watch its progress, and the chief command devolved on Mortogh, his eldest son, a prince of consummate valour. The Danes and their allies, the Lagenians, were overthrown after a sanguinary engagement, and having commenced their retreat, Brian ordered his body guard to join in the pursuit, which proved fatal to him. Bruidair having fled from the field, took refuge in a small wood adjoining the aged monarch's tent, whom he observed kneeling, his hands upraised, and his mind intent on prayer: rushing into the tent, the Dane slew him, and his only attendant, a boy of feeble age; and then ordered his followers to proclaim "that Brian had fallen by the hand of Bruidair." His triumph, however, was of short duration, for the monarch's guards returning from the slaughter, seized the murderer alive, and forced him to expiate by a death of lingering torment the ruthless act he had perpetrated. Thus perished Brian Boro, the renowned Irish monarch, in the arms of victory, in the eighty-eighth year of his age, and twelfth of his reign over the kingdom.

of Ireland. He had in the course of his long and successful career defeated the Danes in no less than fifty general engagements, and ultimately cleared the country of these pestilential invaders. As a commander and warrior in the field he was equalled by few in any age, and by none excelled: his talents for governing were of the most consummate and practical order; his piety was as unaffected as it was exemplary; his patriotism and devotion to his country knew no bounds; his patronage and encouragement of commerce, literature, and the arts and sciences, were on the most liberal and exalted scale; by his example, as well as by his ordinances, he infused into the Irish people such a spirit of religion, virtue, order, and integrity, that it is recorded as a proof thereof, that a young lady of exquisite beauty, adorned with jewels and costly apparel, undertook a journey, unattended, from one end of the kingdom to the other, with only a wand in her hand, at the top of which was a ring of immense value, and no attempt was made on her honour, nor was she robbed of any of her clothes or jewels, or in the slightest degree otherwise molested. Moore's song of "Rich and rare were the Gems she wore," originated in this circumstance. Some idea may be formed of the monarch's hospitality and munificence, from there being consumed annually in his palace of Ceann-Corradh, or Kincora, 2,670 beeves, 1,370 hogs, 350 hhds. and pipes of red, and 150 of white, wine. The day after the battle the wounded were conveyed to the camp of Kilmainham, and on the following day the monks of Columba, from Swords, came to bear away the mortal remains of Brian for interment in the cathedral of Armagh, to which he had been a munificent benefactor. From Swords they were conveyed to the monastery of St. Claran, at Duleek, and thence to Louth, where the Archbishop Mailmurry awaited their arrival, and had them borne with religious solemnity to the archiepiscopal city. The bodies of Mortogh, Brian's nephew, Conan, and his friend and relative, Methlin, Prince of Decies, were carried thither at the same time. Some historians, however, assert that the remains of Mortogh were interred at Kilmainham, and his tomb is pointed out there even to the present day. For twelve successive nights the religious of St. Patrick kept watch over the dead, chanting hymns and offering up prayers for the repose of

their souls. After which, Brian's remains were deposited on the north side of the cathedral, and those of his heroic kinsmen on the south. The victory obtained at Clontarf, although complete, and calculated to put at rest for ever the pretensions of the Danes to dominion in Ireland, was purchased at an enormous loss to the victors. Independent of the venerable monarch, there fell on the occasion his son Mortogh, who performed prodigies of valour during the engagement, three other sons, his grandson and nephew, the Prince of Decies, and a number of the most valiant and distinguished chieftains of the nation. On the part of the enemy, the King of Leinster (whose implacable animosity and anti-national conduct had been the sole cause of the war) was slain ; the Prince of Hy Falgie ; the two sons of the King of Denmark ; their Admiral, Bruidair, and many other of their bravest generals shared the same fate ; with about 11,000 Danes, and 4,000 Lagenians : the loss of the Irish was estimated at 4,000 men. They were, however, either so weakened by this otherwise glorious event, or the dissensions, jealousies, and rivalries of the chiefs for the sovereignty, as well as the crown of Munster, vacant by the death of Brian, which could not even in the moment of victory be restrained, that it prevented their following it up effectually by besieging Dublin, and exterminating the remnant of the Danes who had taken refuge there. The royal army, therefore, separated, each division returning to its own province, under their respective commanders. Malachy, whose pretensions were superior to the other candidates, and who, after the death of Mortogh, signalized himself in completing the victory, resumed the sovereignty. Some historians, however, contend that he kept aloof during the engagement, and restrained his troops from taking any share in it ; but this account must be erroneous, for had he acted so base and dastardly a part at Clontarf, it is not very probable that he would have been elected to the throne so soon after by the unanimous voice of the nation. As soon as he was invested with supreme authority, he marched an army to Dublin to root out the Danes who had survived the battle of Clontarf, which he effectually accomplished, by plundering, and afterwards setting fire to, the city. This was a chastisement deservedly inflicted on the Danes of Dublin particularly, who had lived in peace, and at

their ease, under Brian's government—encouraged in their commerce, and protected in their property—yet, who took the first opportunity of joining his enemies against him. The Danes, however, repaired the ravages committed by this assault, and rebuilt the walls; as it appears, that Donough, son to the late monarch, encamped an army near them soon after, with which he had previously committed great excesses in Meath, Leinster, and Ossory, and levied contributions on the inhabitants of Dublin, and brought away hostages for their submission to him. In 1066, Dublin was invaded by a rival naval power to the Danes; Godfrey Crovan, King of Man, captured the city, and conquered a great portion of the kingdom of Leinster. In 1072, Turlogh O'Brien, King of Munster, reduced the city, and obliged the inhabitants to pay him tribute, and give him hostages. Notwithstanding in 1088, they burnt Waterford, but were defeated with considerable loss in a similar attempt upon Cork. The Danes, who had kept possession of Dublin with short intervals for three centuries, were now obliged to submit to Murtogh O'Brien, King of Ireland, who, in 1095, expelled Godfrey, the Danish king, and kept possession of the city until his death, twenty-five years after. In 1152, a synod was held at Kells, at which Cardinal Paparo dispensed the palls sent by Eugenius IV., constituting Dublin and Tuam archiepiscopal sees, and vesting the primacy in the see of Armagh. Previous to this synod, there had been only two archbishoprics in Ireland, Armagh and Cashel, both of which had existed since the time of St. Patrick, and were consecrated by him. On the death of Murtogh O'Loughlin, Roderic O'Connor, the last and most unfortunate of all the Irish monarchs, laid claim to the crown. He assembled the States of the kingdom at Dublin, of which city he had been previously made king by his father, and where he was unanimously elected Sovereign of Ireland, with all the pomp and solemnity that had been observed towards the most powerful of his predecessors, and which from the coronation of Brian had been disused. Roderic, however, little suspected that the kingdom which he had been appointed to rule over by the voice of the nation had been surreptitiously made the subject of a bargain and sale between Pope Adrian and Henry II., King of England, ten years previously. Adrian,

who was himself an Englishman, had the audacity to bestow the kingdom of Ireland on Henry and his heirs in perpetuity, reserving to himself an annual tribute of one penny for every house in the kingdom, which was called Peter's-pence; and with superlative hypocrisy declared that he was solely influenced to commit an act so monstrous by his devotion to the holy cause of religion, which was to be rendered more pure under the control of a foreign dynasty.

In 1169, Dermot MacMurrough, who had called in the aid of Anglo-Norman auxiliaries to reinstate him in his sovereignty of Leinster, and who had recently made a treaty with Roderic, and given hostages for its fulfilment, without even a pretence for renewing hostilities, now marched with his new general, Fitzgerald, and all his troops, into Fingall, which he ravaged with fire and sword. Alarmed at these sudden and unexpected hostilities, the inhabitants of Dublin, fearing an attack, resolved on propitiating the King of Leinster, and save the city from being plundered. Accordingly they sent many rich presents into his camp, and delivered hostages to submit to any tribute he should think proper to impose. They thus for the present averted the threatened danger. But after the storming of Waterford the following year by Strongbow, the allied army marched towards Dublin, in order to secure the capital, and possess themselves of the rich booty it contained. Roderic made a disposition to oppose them, but struck with their discipline and formidable appearance, he retired to defend his own territory. The capital thus left to the mercy of Dermot was summoned to surrender, and while the inhabitants were negotiating the terms on one side of the city, Miles Cogan, an Anglo-Norman knight, who was posted on the other, made a breach in the walls, took it by assault, and plundered the inhabitants of a rich booty. Dermot and his Anglo-Norman subsidiaries now took virtual possession of the city. Providence, however, did not permit the criminal author of this revolution and subjugation of his country to long enjoy the fruits of his perfidy and treason. In the midst of his successes, and at the very time that the crown of Ireland was within his grasp, he was suddenly arrested by the hand of death. A loathsome disease attacked him, and he retired

to his palace of Ferns, where he died obscurely, detested by every patriotic Irishman, and deserted by those pretended friends, whom his recent successes had attached to his cause. He was buried in the Abbey there, which he had built in atonement for having fired the town of Ferns when he fled to England in 1166. Having died without male issue, Strongbow assumed the government of Leinster in right of his wife, or rather by virtue of the formidable army, flushed with success, which he commanded. He now indulged in regal state at Ferns, the capital of the province, dispensing honours, rewards, and punishments at his pleasure. There being no force on foot to oppose his progress, or dispute his will, he marched to Dublin, to have his claims recognised in that capital. Many of the Irish chieftains, however, who had adhered to the fortunes of Dermot, looked upon Strongbow's assumption of royalty with jealousy and displeasure, and withdrew their support. Henry II. also, astonished at the progress made by a few adventurous soldiers, in conquering a country for themselves, ordered them to return home, but the order was not obeyed. The monarch's displeasure, however, had its effect; it caused Strongbow to be left in Dublin, destitute of supplies, and in a state of great despondence. Fitzstephen, yielding to his solicitation, forwarded him succour that he could badly spare. The moment was favourable, and a disposition prevailed to make a powerful effort to throw off the yoke of these rapacious intruders. The venerable Lawrence O'Toole, Archbishop of Dublin, exhorted his countrymen to rouse themselves from their apathy, and cordially unite against the common enemy. He flew from province to province entreating, soliciting, and commanding chieftains, clergy, and the people at large, to combine, and avail themselves of these opportune circumstances to rid their country of such dangerous and implacable foes. This appeal was responded to with enthusiasm—considerable bodies of troops marched on Dublin from all quarters, and Roderic at length found himself at the head of an imposing force. A coalition was formed with Hesculph Mac Turkell, the late Danish commander of Dublin, who fled from thence on the Anglo-Normans taking possession of it, but who now returned reinforced by several Danish ships, and while the Irish army besieged the city by land, Mac Turkell block-

aded the harbour by sea. Strongbow became seriously alarmed. He assembled his principal officers, and representing to them the great force of the Irish, and their own embarrassed circumstances, recommended that they should offer, through the archbishop, terms of capitulation to the monarch, which were—to submit, and hold Leinster as a feudatory province under him. This being assented to, Lawrence was prevailed on to communicate the proposition to Roderic, who absolutely refused to grant any other terms than that Strongbow should surrender to him Dublin, Waterford, and Wexford, with all his forts and castles on a given day, and that he and all his followers should depart the country at the same time—otherwise, that he would make the assault without delay, and take the city by storm. When the archbishop reported Roderic's conditions to Strongbow, he called a council of war of those men who had been so recently elated with success, but who were now humiliated and dejected. Miles Cogan roused them from their despondency by a spirited address. A sortie of the garrison was determined on, and the command of the van was assigned to Cogan; the centre to Raymond le Gros; while Strongbow himself brought up the rear; each division consisting only of 200 men. In this order they attacked the Irish camp with such impetuosity, that panic and disorder ensued, and the besiegers fled in every direction, leaving a large supply of provisions in the hands of the victors. English historians, as well as Regan, Mac Murrough's secretary, differ as to the force of the besieging army. Some place it as low as 6,000, others at 30,000, and some even as high as 60,000; be that as it may, it is incredible to believe, that even the *minimum* force could be totally routed, having only sustained a loss of 150 men; and, more incredible still, that the besieged had only one man slain. Hesculph Mac Turkell was taken prisoner and put to death, under the foul pretence of his being a pirate, although he had been governor of Dublin when the Anglo-Normans invaded the country, and was descended from a long line of Ostmen princes, who from time to time ruled there. The City of Dublin being thus secured, Strongbow appointed Cogan governor, and marched towards Wexford to release Fitzstephen and his officers, who were held in close confinement by the

inhabitants ; who, being apprised of his approach, after removing their prisoners and their best effects, set fire to the town, and thus frustrated his design. On his march thither he was attacked by O'Ryan, Chief of Idrone, and in all probability would have sustained a defeat had not that chief been slain at the onset. Strongbow's son, a youth of seventeen years, who accompanied him in this expedition, was so terrified at the fierce attack, and wild war-cry of the Irish, that he fled from the battle towards Dublin ; but on hearing that his father was victorious, he returned to congratulate him. The ireful chief, after reproaching him with his cowardice, ordered him to be executed in the most cruel manner, by cutting his body in two with a sword. That this sentence was carried into effect, is more than probable, from the epitaph and other appearances on the tombs of both father and son, in Christ's Church, Dublin. An act so savage as this, even in the most barbarous times, cannot be recorded of the Irish by their most inveterate calumniators, and exceeded, if possible, the unnatural practice of English parents selling their children as slaves to the Irish. With these successes the alarm and jealousy of the English monarch increased. When informed that Dermod was dead, and that Strongbow had seized upon the kingdom of Leinster, he issued a proclamation prohibiting all vessels with provisions or warlike stores to hold communication with Ireland ; and ordered all his subjects in that country to return home, on pain of forfeiture of their estates or effects in England, and of being declared traitors to their country. This compelled Strongbow to wait on the monarch in person, and surrender into his hands those places he had conquered in Ireland, which he was to hold in vassalage to the crown ; and it was arranged that the king in person should proceed to Ireland to complete the conquest of that country. Accordingly, Henry landed the following year, 1171, at Waterford, with an imposing force ; and after receiving the homage of MacCarthy, of Desmond, and other southern chiefs, he arrived in Dublin, and celebrated the feast of Christmas there with great splendour, receiving the homage of several of the native princes ; even Roderic, although he refused crossing the Shannon, sent in his adhesion by Fitz-Andelm and De Lacy. The troubles engendered in Normandy by his sons compelled Henry

to leave Ireland sooner than he intended. He, therefore, proceeded to Wexford, where he embarked, appointing Hugh De Lacy his deputy, with Robert Fitzstephen and Maurice Fitzgerald to assist him in the government. Previous to his leaving Dublin he granted the citizens a charter similar to that of Bristol: the original, it is said, is still in the archives of the corporation. And by a subsequent charter, he exempted them from toll, passage, or pontage throughout his dominions. Three years after Henry's departure, Strongbow made an incursion into Munster, in which he was accompanied by many citizens of Dublin, but on their return, laden with plunder, they were attacked by Donald, Prince of Ossory, who deprived them of their spoil, with the loss of 400 Dublin men. Strongbow soon after died, and was succeeded, in the estimation of the Anglo-Norman adventurers, by Raymond Le Gros, who had married his sister, Basilea. Vivian, the pope's legate, held a synod in 1177, in Dublin, and had the title of Henry to the lordship of Ireland proclaimed, and threatened excommunication to all who refused him allegiance. In 1185, John, Henry's favourite son, was invested by him Lord of Ireland, and arrived in Dublin attended by a numerous train of nobles, who soon rendered themselves obnoxious to the Irish chieftains. John ordered Fitz-Henry to commence building a castle on the eastern side of the hill on which Dublin stands. In 1204, a great plague ravaged the city. In 1207, John granted it a charter. In 1209, while the citizens were amusing themselves on Easter Monday, in Cullenswood, they were attacked by a body of Irish, and 500 persons killed, from which circumstance it was called Black Monday, and commemorated by a parade of citizens on the anniversary, carrying a black banner, and challenging the Irish to renew the combat. In 1210, John established in Dublin courts of law and equity, similar to those of England, and deposited an extract of the English laws and customs in the Exchequer, and issued a coinage of pence and farthings. In 1215 licence was granted to the city to erect a bridge over the Liffey. Magna Charta was extended to Ireland by Henry III., who also granted several charters to the City of Dublin, which were confirmed by Edward I. In 1217, the fee-farm of the city was granted to the citizens at a rent of 200 marks. In 1220,

the Castle of Dublin was completed by Henry de Londres. In 1224, a loan of 366 marks was granted to Henry III. by the citizens in aid of an expedition against Hugh de Lacy. In 1279, the coinage was altered by Edward I. to a fixed standard; and there were four mints in Dublin, one in Waterford, and one in Drogheda for the purpose. Towards the close of the thirteenth and commencement of the fourteenth century, several extensive fires broke out, which destroyed a great portion of the city, and consumed the public records, which had been kept in Mary's Abbey. In 1310, there was a famine, when a cranock of wheat sold for twenty shillings, and several bakers were drawn through the city on hurdles, for using false weights and adulterating their bread. In 1311, Richard Lawless, ancestor to Lord Cloncurry, was thrice elected Provost, or Chief Magistrate of Dublin. In 1312, the O'Byrnes and O'Tooles made an incursion into Rathcoole and Saggard, in the neighbourhood of the city, in the absence of the chief force sent from thence to quell an insurrection of the De Verdons in Louth and Ergallia. These brave and hardy septs, whose territories were in Wicklow and Kildare, although so near the capital, preserved their independence for three centuries after the Anglo-Norman invasion, and continued to harass and annoy the English government and the city. From time to time the citizens sallied out, and carried the war into their mountain districts: these were called hostings, in which they were occasionally successful, but were more frequently obliged to return with considerable loss. In 1315, Edward Bruce, who had overrun a great part of Ulster, laid siege to Dublin: he was accompanied by his brother Robert and Walter de Lacy. They remained some days at Castlenock in the neighbourhood, and finding the citizens determined to hold out to the last, Bruce was persuaded by de Lacy to raise the siege, and proceed further south, and by this means he threw away the best chance he had of subduing the kingdom. During the siege, St. Mary's Abbey, Newgate, and St. Patrick's Cathedral, were burned down. In 1331, Sir William Birmingham and his son Walter were convicted of offences against the State. Sir William was executed, but his son was liberated on the ground of his being in holy orders. About this period there was a great

famine, during which an immense number of large fish, called turleyhides, thirty to forty feet long, were cast ashore at the mouth of the Dodder. The city was visited during this and the succeeding century with pestilence five or six times over. In 1385, the Old Bridge fell. In 1394, Richard II., who had previously landed in Waterford, arrived in Dublin with a force of 30,000 foot and 4,000 horse. His second visit took place in 1399, but he was called back to England suddenly, by the unwelcome news of England being invaded by the Duke of Lancaster. The most remarkable event that occurred to the city in the fifteenth century, was an expedition, fitted out by the citizens, which invaded Scotland and Wales during the civil war created by the Earl of Northumberland and Owen Glyndwr; from the latter place they carried off the shrine of St. Cubie, which was placed in Christ Church. For these services Henry IV., in 1409, confirmed to the city all its former charters, and changed the title of the chief magistrate, to whom he made a present of a gilded sword, which was to be borne before all future mayors the same as the Lord Mayor of London. Thomas Cusack was the first mayor elected: previous thereto the chief magistrate was styled "The Provost." In 1413, Henry V. landed at Clontarf, and a Parliament was held, which sat fifteen days. In 1428, the Dominican Friars built the Old Bridge on the Liffey, and charged 1d. toll for carriages or beasts of burden passing over it. Mac Murrough, dynast of Leinster, in 1431, made an incursion into the vicinity of Dublin, and defeated the troops sent out to oppose him, carrying off much booty. The citizens, however, collected a fresh body of troops, pursued and attacked him unawares, routing him with considerable loss. The city about this time was much disturbed by the contentions of the Fitzgerald and Butler families. The mayor and other citizens, in 1434, were obliged to do penance for violating the privileges and abusing the Abbot of St. Mary's. In 1479, the fraternity of Arms of St. George was formed, consisting of thirteen members of the most distinguished inhabitants of Dublin, Kildare, Meath, and Louth, for the protection of the English pale. The mayor was the commander of the force raised in the city. This order was dissolved in 1492. When Lambert Simnel laid claim to the crown of England, as son to the Duke of

Clarence, his title was recognised in Dublin, and he was crowned in Christ Church, in presence of the lord-deputy, the archbishop, the mayor, and the majority of the Irish nobility. From the church he was carried in state to the castle on the shoulders of Darcy, of Platten, a man of extraordinary stature. After Simnel's defeat at Stoke, the mayor and citizens made an humble apology to Henry VII. for the part they had taken in the affair, which they attributed to the lord-deputy, the archbishop, and the clergy. Their pardon was granted through Sir Richard Edgcombe, who was deputed by Henry to administer to them the oath of allegiance. In 1504, the citizens contributed to the victory obtained by the Earl of Kildare over the Irish and degenerate English at Knocktow, near Galway. The feuds between the Fitzgeralds and Butlers were revived, and the mayor and citizens were again subjected to ecclesiastical censures. One of the most remarkable events of the sixteenth century, in Dublin, was the rebellion of Lord Thomas Fitzgerald, better known as Silken Thomas. He was appointed lord-deputy in the absence of his father, the Earl of Kildare, who was summoned to appear before Henry VIII. to answer charges brought against him. Lord Thomas having heard that the Earl had been thrown into prison in London, and afterwards put to death, armed his followers and proceeded to St. Mary's Abbey, where the council was sitting; there he threw down the sword of state, declaring that he would depend upon his own weapon to revenge his father's death, and that from that hour he was no longer the king's deputy, but his mortal foe. Notwithstanding the paternal advice and remonstrance of Cromer, the primate and chancellor, he put himself at the head of his adherents: he ravaged Fingall, took possession of the city, and laid siege to the Castle. Alan, archbishop of Dublin, the avowed enemy of his family, in endeavouring to escape to England, was cruelly put to death by his followers. Leaving the conduct of the siege of Dublin Castle to a part of his troops, he marched against the Earl of Ossory, whom he defeated. Henry sent supplies of troops against him under Sir William Brereton; and his Castle of Maynooth being reduced, by the treachery of his own foster-brother, he was obliged to make terms with Lord Leonard Grey, who, in the most solemn manner, promised him a pardon,

and under the pretence of its requiring the king's ratification, sent him to England, where he was committed to the Tower. Henry now vowed vengeance against the whole lineage of Kildare: and Lord Grey received orders to arrest his five uncles, whom he entrapped by inviting them to a banquet, where they were made prisoners, conveyed to London, and, with their nephew, most foully put to death, although they took no part in his insurrection, and two of them were decidedly opposed to it. Nor was the brutal rage of the monarch satiated with this: his wily deputy received instructions to exterminate the whole race, which he but too faithfully carried into effect; entering their country with an immense force, those who resisted he slew, and those who surrendered he brought prisoners to Dublin, where sixteen of them were executed as traitors in one day. Gerald, a younger son of the Earl's, only escaped; and the vengeful monster, thirsting for his blood too, pursued him from court to court, demanding him from the respective monarchs, when he at length found safety in the protection of Cardinal Pole, Henry's relative and declared enemy, who educated him suitably to his birth, and preserved him to regain the honours of his family. In 1552, the mayor and citizens, being joined by the mayor and inhabitants of Drogheda, marched against the O'Reillys, of Cavan, whom they defeated; but the mayors disputed as to the honour of leading the van, which was decided in favour of his worship of Dublin, who led the van going out, and the rear returning. In 1553, the service of the mass was restored in Dublin by order of Mary. In 1554, several Protestants, who fled from England to avoid religious persecution, were protected and settled in Dublin. In 1556, the sept of the Cavenaghs made an incursion into the south suburbs of the city, which they burnt and plundered; but being pursued by the city forces, and hemmed in at Powerscourt, they surrendered, and the *merciful* citizens had seventy-four of them hanged in Dublin. In 1560, the castle was repaired, and fitted up as a residence for the Chief Governor of Ireland, who previously resided in Thomas Court. In 1563, a body of armed citizens, headed by one of the sheriffs, attended the Deputy Sussex in a hosting to Dundalk, against Shane O'Neill, and returned with considerable booty. A proclamation was issued forbidding meet-

ings of priests or friars in the city, and a tax imposed on house-keepers who abstained from attending church. In 1565, John Hawkins introduced the potatoe into Ireland from Santa Fé, in South America. In 1566, Sarsfield, the mayor, and the citizens of Dublin, forced Shane O'Neill to raise the siege of Dundalk, and liberated the Lady Sidney, and on his march back he was attacked by the O'Reillys of Cavan, whom he defeated also; on his arrival in the city he was knighted. In 1568, the mayor was fined £100, and taken into custody, for disobeying the Deputy's commands as to attending a general hosting, but was liberated after two days' confinement. In 1569, Strongbow's monument in Christ Church underwent repair; a considerable portion of the rents of the city was payable on his tomb, which in some degree accounts for the care taken of its preservation. In 1571, printing type in the Irish character was brought to Dublin by Nicholas Walsh, Chancellor of St. Patrick's. In 1573, the Earl of Desmond broke his parole from the custody of the mayor, and was proclaimed a traitor. In 1575, a plague so dreadful ravaged the city, that the grass grew in the streets and at the church doors, and the Lord Deputy Sidney was obliged to remove his court to Drogheda. In 1578, Kilmainham Bridge built. The mayor prevented from going to Cullenswood on Black Monday by a violent storm of wind and rain. The place of electing the mayor changed from St. Andrew's to the Tholsel. In 1579, the records of Ireland arranged in Birmingham Tower, Dublin Castle. In 1582, the courts of law removed from the Castle to the Dominican Abbey, on the north side of the Liffey, where the Four Courts now stand. In 1586, the Queen's Exchequer, then situated without the east gate, was plundered by a party from the Wicklow mountains. In 1590, Hugh Roe O'Donnell, prince of Tyrconnel, commonly called Red Hugh, escaped from the Castle where he had been detained a prisoner upwards of three years, being entrapped when only sixteen years of age, on board a vessel sent by the deputy, Sir John Perrott, with that intent; but assuming to be a merchant-vessel loaded with wine, the young O'Donnell was induced to go on board to taste it, when he and his attendants were treacherously made prisoners, and delivered into the hands of the deputy. The narrative of his escape and return to Tyrconnel

is romantic and interesting in the extreme. In 1591, Trinity College was founded by a charter from Elizabeth, on the site of the suppressed Monastery of All Hallows, and in 1593, opened for the instruction of students. In 1596, 144 barrels of powder, intended for Dublin Castle, blew up on Wood Quay, destroyed forty to fifty houses, and killed upwards of three hundred persons, and damaged several churches. In 1599 the Earl of Essex arrived in Ireland with 20,000 men, intended to be brought against O'Neill, who had overrun the greatest part of Ulster; but nothing important was effected until Sir Charles Blount, afterwards Lord Mountjoy, succeeded him as deputy. In 1603, James I. proclaimed; and circuits for judges of assize established in Connaught and Ulster. In 1605, several of the aldermen and citizens fined for non-conformity by the Castle Star Chamber. The customs of Tanaistry and Gavelkind abolished by a decision of the Court of King's Bench. In 1606, an anonymous letter found in the council chamber in the Castle, imputing a treasonable conspiracy to the northern chieftains Tyrone and Tyrconnel, which, although no doubt a fabrication, had the desired effect of compelling them to seek safety in a foreign land. In 1607, the former charters were confirmed by James, and new privileges granted the city. In 1613, a parliament assembled in Dublin, by the Deputy Chichester, which had for its object the confirming the numerous grants of confiscated property obtained by him and his adherents from the crown. The Protestant and Catholic members had a row in electing a speaker, and the latter withdrew and did not return during its sittings, but protested against its proceedings. In 1622, a University opened in Back Lane for the education of Catholics. Several citizens censured by the Castle Star Chamber for refusing to take the oath of supremacy. In 1623, a proclamation issued to expel the Catholic clergy, both regular and secular. The Rolls office built by Sir Christopher Wandesford at his own expense. In 1630, a Catholic priest seized in the city was rescued by the people. Fifteen religious Catholic houses seized on by the crown. In 1632, the Catholic College in Back Lane was closed by order of the government, and granted to Trinity College. In 1634, a parliament was held, when the supremacy of the see of Armagh over that of Dublin was restored.

Also a convocation, when a new Book of Canons was established. In 1640, John Atherton, Bishop of Waterford, was executed in Stephen's Green for bestiality. The deputy, Sir C. Wandesford, died, and Sirs William Parsons and John Borlace, were sworn Lords Justices. In 1641, Owen Connelly gave information of a plot to seize the Castle. The council and records of several public offices removed to Cork Street. Part of the city wall fell down. In 1642, Sir Charles Coote, governor of Dublin, was killed by a sally of the garrison of Trim. The citizens ordered to bring in their plate to meet the exigencies of the civil war, which only produced £1,200. The following year the mayor was consulted by the council as to a project of raising £10,000, half money half provisions, to enable the army to take the field, but such was the poverty of the city that it was relinquished as impracticable. In 1644, the population stated (no doubt erroneously) to be only 8,159 persons, a majority of whom were Protestants. In 1646, Owen Roe, O'Neill, and General Preston united their forces to attack Dublin, but were obliged to withdraw for want of provisions. In 1647, the city was delivered to the Parliamentary Commissioners by the Marquis of Ormond. Owen Roe O'Neill devastated the country near Dublin. In 1648, the walls and fortifications were repaired by Colonel Jones. In 1649, the Marquis of Ormond attempted to get possession of the city, which he had so lately given up, and besieged it, but the garrison sallied out and defeated him at Baginbun. Cromwell landed in Dublin with 9,000 foot and 4,000 horse, and a well-appointed park of artillery, with which he proceeded to besiege Drogheda. In 1652, a high court of justice sat in the city, before which Sir Phelim O'Neill, charged with originating the civil war, was condemned to die; he was offered a pardon repeatedly, if he would make a declaration that when he first took up arms he acted under the authority of Charles I., but he rejected the temptation, and suffered with courage and fortitude. In 1658, Henry Cromwell was appointed Lord-Lieutenant. In 1659, the Castle was seized by a party of officers favourable to the restoration. In 1660, a cap of maintenance and a gold chain, called *S.S.*, were presented to the mayor by Charles II., and a company of infantry granted him as a guard. Twelve bishops

consecrated together in St. Patrick's Cathedral. In 1663, the Court of Claims held their sittings in King's Inns. Colonel Blood's plot to seize the Castle of Dublin discovered. In 1665, the chief magistrate honoured with the title of Lord Mayor, as in London, and £500 granted him in lieu of the company of foot. Sir Daniel Bellingham was the first Lord Mayor. In 1666, a national synod of the Catholic bishops and clergy held in Dublin. In 1670, there was an inundation of the Liffey; the waters flowed up Brunswick Street, and to the College. Stephen's Green enclosed, and pipes laid to convey water from the City Basin. An Exchange opened at Cork House. A wooden bridge erected over the Liffey, which was called Bloody Bridge, from the circumstance of the Dublin apprentices attempting to destroy it the following year, when several persons were killed on it. In 1672, the Earl of Essex, lord-deputy, published new regulations for the observance of the corporation. In 1678, all Catholic ecclesiastics ordered to quit the kingdom, and all persons professing that religion forbidden to enter the Castle. Talbot, Catholic Archbishop of Dublin, arrested by order of the Duke of Ormond, then Lord-Lieutenant, who also despatched the Catholic Archbishop of Armagh, Plunket, to London, who was subsequently most foully hanged, drawn, and quartered at Tyburn. In 1679, a proclamation issued to imprison the relatives of Tories, until the principals were either killed or apprehended. In 1682, Ormond Market opened; the population, according to Sir William Petty, 60,000. In 1683, the Tholsel built at the expense of the corporation. A commission of grace held at the King's Inns. In 1684, James II. proclaimed. Ormond Quay and Arran Bridge built. In 1686, the City Charter renewed by James II., under a *quo warranto*. In 1687, an inundation of the Liffey, by which a part of Essex Bridge was destroyed. In 1689 James II. arrived in Dublin amidst the acclamations of the people. A parliament assembled at King's Inns. Michael Creagh, the lord mayor, absconds with the collar of S.S. A mint established, in which brass money was coined to pass for sixpences, shillings, and half-crowns. In 1690, James defeated at the Boyne; after the battle, passed one night in Dublin, and then proceeded to France, *viâ* Waterford. The castle and city taken possession of by Wil-

liam III. In 1695, the rates of foreign coin fixed by proclamation. The Four Courts, in Christ Church Lane, rebuilt. The records of King James's parliament publicly burnt. In 1697, an Act passed for erecting lamps throughout the city. Bartholomew Van Homridgh, the lord mayor, obtained from William III., a donative collar of S.S. in lieu of that lost in 1688, with his likeness attached to it. In 1698, the Courts of Equity transferred to the new buildings in Christ Church Lane. In 1700, "Pues Occurrences," the first Dublin newspaper, published. In 1701, an equestrian statue of King William erected in College Green. In 1705, the society of the Ouzel-galley Club formed for deciding mercantile disputes without litigation. In 1707, the old Custom-House, at Essex Bridge, built. Interest of money reduced from 10 to 8 per cent. The Ballast Board incorporated. In 1711, the Council Chamber, with many of its records, destroyed by fire. A convocation held, at which new canons were ordained. In 1726, the Linen Hall opened for the sale of cloth and yarn. In 1727, George II. granted the City a charter. In 1729, the Parliament met at the Blue Coat Hospital, when an attempt was made to vote the supplies for twenty-one years, which was defeated by a member riding forty or fifty miles, and entering the house with boots and spurs, contrary to the parliamentary *etiquette* then observed. In 1731, a music-hall opened in Crow Street, where subsequently the theatre stood. In 1732, the principal theatre was in Beresford Street. Interest of money reduced to 6 per cent. The society for the erection of Protestant Charter Schools incorporated. First school built near Clontarf. Stevens's Hospital opened, and Mercers' the following year. In 1735, the light-ship was stationed at Ringsend. In 1741, Tyrone House built; it now forms part of the buildings of the National Education Institution. The Music Hall, Fishamble Street, opened for concerts. In 1745, the building of St. Patrick's Lunatic Asylum commenced. Catholics permitted to assemble in public worship, attributed to the loss of lives by the falling of a floor in a private house, where a number of persons had assembled to perform their devotion in secret. In 1747, the Phoenix Column, erected in Phoenix Park, by Lord Chesterfield. In 1749, a Charter of Incorporation, and £500, were granted

to the Dublin Society. In 1752, new style commenced by rejecting eleven days from the Calendar. In 1758, an equestrian statue of George II. placed in Stephen's Green. Crow Street Theatre opened. In 1759, an Act was passed regulating the Corporation, by which the junior guilds acquired considerable privileges. In 1761, the patriotic Dr. Lucas, who had vindicated the liberty of the press, and the independence of the Irish parliament, and who was obliged in 1749 to find refuge in England from the prosecution of the government, was restored to his country and returned as representative to serve the city in parliament. In 1768, an Act was passed to limit the duration of Parliament to eight years. In 1773, the foundations of the new buildings of the Blue Coat Hospital, and of the Gaol in Green Street, laid. A Penny Postage established for the City, and four miles round. Hibernian Marine School opened. In 1776, the foundation of the King's Inn Buildings laid. In 1778, the Charitable Musical Society, for lending small sums to industrious tradesmen, formed. The first regiment of Dublin Volunteers, commanded by the Duke of Leinster, appeared in public under arms. In 1780, resolutions were unanimously passed by the Irish Parliament for free-trade. The first State Lottery drawn at the Music Hall, Fishamble Street. In 1782, a declaration of both houses of parliament was made, that no power on earth had a right to make laws to bind the Irish people, but the King, Lords and Commons of Ireland. In 1783, the first installation of the Knights of St. Patrick, held in St. Patrick's Cathedral. The New Market, Blackhall Street, and the City Market, Back Lane, opened. Deputies from the Volunteer Corps of Ireland assembled from 10th November to the 1st December, at the Rotundo, to insist on Parliamentary Reform being granted. In 1784, an additional judge appointed to each of the law-courts. The Habeas Corpus Act for Ireland passed. General Post-Office established. College of Surgeons incorporated. In 1785, St. Paul's Catholic Church, Arran Quay, built. General Dispensaries established in the city. The streets lighted on a new principle with oil and double burners. In 1786, the Royal Irish Academy, for the promotion of science, antiquities, and polite literature, incorporated. An Act appointing a police force for the city. The

building the Four Courts and Law-Offices commenced on the site of the Old King's Inns. First Sunday School opened in St. Catherine's parish. In 1787, the Duke of Rutland died in the vice-royalty—his remains removed to England for interment. Ballast-Board incorporated by the name of the Corporation for the Preservation and Improvement of the Port of Dublin. In 1789, Ringsend Bridge carried away; in 1792 rebuilt. Abecedarian Society, afterwards called the Literary Teacher's Society, instituted. In 1790, the first mail-coach started from Dublin. The Strangers' Friend Society; the Sick and Indigent Room-keepers' Society; the Law Club and Dublin Library, Eustace Street, instituted. In 1791, foundation of the new House of Industry laid. The first steam-engine erected in the city. In 1792, an inundation of the Liffey took place, when sail-boats plied between Rogerson's Quay and Ringsend. The House of Commons destroyed by fire. In 1793, a deputation of the Catholics of Ireland left Dublin for London, to wait on George III. towards the removal of their political disabilities, and an Act passed the Legislature, granting them partial relief. In 1794, an Act passed granting Ireland a share in the East India trade. The meetings of the Historical Society, Trinity College, suppressed by order of the Board of Senior Fellows. In 1795 there was a parochial watch established in the city and suburbs. Yeomanry corps formed in the city; and the new Four Courts, King's Inn Quay, opened. In 1797, the Session House, in Green Street, opened. In 1798, Lord Edward Fitzgerald was arrested, on a charge of high treason, in Thomas Street, having received wounds on the occasion, of which he shortly afterwards died in prison. The rebellion broke out in Wexford in the month of May. The city proclaimed, and many frightful excesses committed while under the influence of martial law. John and Henry Shears, and other popular leaders, executed. The equestrian statue of George I., originally placed on Essex Bridge and removed in 1753, was now set up in the Lord Mayor's garden, Dawson Street. In 1800, the Act of Union passed the legislature. First election of members to represent the city in the United Parliament. Farming Society for Ireland instituted. In 1802, an Act passed for the sale of the buildings of the houses of parliament to the Bank of Ireland.

King's Inn Buildings, Henrietta Street, erected. Ormond and Ringsend Bridges destroyed by a flood, when boats plied in Patrick Street. Peace of Amiens proclaimed. In 1803, an insurrection took place in the city, commonly called Emmett's rebellion, in which Lord Kilwarden, Chief Justice of the King's Bench, and his nephew, lost their lives; and subsequently the talented individual who had organised it was arrested, tried, and executed. In 1804, the houses of parliament underwent alterations to adapt them to the business of the Bank of Ireland. In 1806, the Prince of Wales, Margate packet, and the Rochfort, transport, wrecked off Dunleary, now Kingstown: the numerous passengers all lost, but the captains and crews saved their lives. In 1808, the Bank of Ireland opened in College Green. A new police established, with jurisdiction eight miles round Dublin. In 1809, the Jubilee, on the occasion of the fiftieth anniversary of the reign of George III., celebrated with great splendour in the city for three successive days. Richmond Institution for the Industrious Blind founded. In 1811, the Stamp Office established in Powerscourt House, William Street. The floating light-ship moored on the Kish Bank, S. E. of Dublin Bay. In 1812, the Richmond Basin at Portobello, for supplying the city with water, opened. In 1813, the petition of the corporation against further concessions to the Catholics presented at the bar of the House of Commons by the Lord Mayor of Dublin. Royal Institution for the Encouragement of the Fine Arts established in College Green. In 1814, the streets of the city nearly impassable for three weeks, caused by a heavy fall of snow; subscriptions were raised to the amount of £10,000 for the relief of the suffering poor, by means of which 66,000 were assisted. Stone Tenter House, Cork Street, built at the sole expense of Thomas Pleasants, for the use of the weavers of the liberty. A grand illumination for the capture of Paris and the restoration of the Bourbons. Peace with France proclaimed. In 1815, there were nine persons killed, and several wounded, by the fall of the balustrade in front of the Royal Exchange, in consequence of the pressure of a crowd to witness the whipping of a culprit. The mansion of the Duke of Leinster, in Kildare Street, purchased for the use of the Dublin Society. The Catholic church of St. Michael and St. John erected on the site

of Smock Alley Theatre. In 1816, a steam packet the first time proceeded from Dublin harbour. Subscriptions to the amount of £18,586 raised for the unemployed weavers, many of whom were sent to England. The Corn Exchange, Burgh Quay, erected. William Sadler performed an aeronautic voyage across the Irish Sea, ascending in Dublin, and descending in the Isle of Anglesey. In 1818, the Archdukes Maximilian and Michael visited the city; and Hassan Khan, the Persian ambassador the following year. In 1820, the Dublin Library Society transferred to D'Olier Street, and the Chamber of Commerce instituted. In 1821, the Theatre Royal, Hawkin's Street, opened. George IV. visited Dublin: he landed at Howth 12th August, made his public entry into the city on the 17th, on which occasion there were illuminations for two nights: he presided at an installation of the Knights of St. Patrick, in St. Patrick's Cathedral, when Lord Fingall was created a Knight of the order, being the first Catholic admitted thereto; and after visiting all the public institutions in the city, and being present at the opening of George's Dock, his Majesty embarked at Dunleary, which subsequently got the name of Kingstown from that circumstance. It rained incessantly during the whole of this visit. In 1822, the city was visited by a dreadful storm, which did much damage. A serious riot in Hawkin's Street Theatre: a bottle flung at Marquis Wellesley, Lord-Lieutenant. In 1824, the Catholic Association formed, and the rent established by Daniel O'Connell. It held its sittings at the Corn-Exchange, Burgh Quay, and was one of the most important assemblies of the age; its proceedings led to Catholic Emancipation being granted by the legislature a few years after. In 1825, an Act passed for assimilating the currencies of Great Britain and Ireland. The city lighted with gas. In 1826, Wellesley Mart opened in Ushers Quay, for encouraging native manufactures. In 1828, the Brunswick Club formed. The first meeting of the Society for the Improvement of Ireland by reclaiming the waste lands took place at the Mansion-House. In 1829, great Protestant meeting held at the Rotundo, when a petition to Parliament was adopted for the removal of the disabilities affecting the Roman Catholics. Catholic Association dissolved. Roman Catholic Relief Bill passed the legislature. In 1830, William IV. pro-

claimed in Dublin. The valuation of the city took place under the 5th George IV. c. 118, when, in the twenty parishes and the liberties, there were 17,324 houses, valued at £704,557 per annum. The Society of Friends of all Religious Denominations put down by proclamation. In 1831, a grand musical festival in the city, at which Paganini performed; the profits were divided among the principal public charities. Daniel O'Connell, Esq., M.P., and seven others arrested for holding political meetings contrary to the proclamation. Zoological Gardens established. In 1832, the cholera raged violently in the city and throughout Ireland. In 1833, a fire broke out in the Custom-house stores, by which a large amount of property was consumed. In 1835, the city was visited by the members of the British Association, to whom a splendid banquet was given by the Fellows of Trinity College, which was honoured by the presence of the Marquis of Normanby, the Lord-Lieutenant. The Stamp-Office removed to the Custom-house. In 1836, the equestrian statue of William III. blown up by gunpowder, by some person or persons unknown. The Cemetery of Harold's Cross consecrated and opened for burials. The Mechanics' Institute founded. In 1837, the Royal Arcade, College Green, destroyed by fire. A public meeting called by the Lord Mayor to raise subscriptions to relieve the sufferers. Queen Victoria proclaimed in Dublin. In 1838, Poor-Laws were introduced, and a new system of police established in the city. In 1839, the city was visited by an awful storm on the night of the 6th January, which caused considerable loss of life and property; during its influence the Bethesda Church, and surrounding houses in Dorset Street, were consumed by fire. Another fire in Mary Street, by which six persons lost their lives, and property to the amount of £70,000 destroyed. The Lord Mayor and a deputation from the Corporation of Dublin presented a petition at the bar of the House of Commons against the Irish Municipal Reform Bill. The Irish Art Union instituted. The Theatre in Abbey Street burned down. The Zoological Gardens, Portobello, opened. Irish Architects' Institution founded. Total Abstinence Society founded in the city by the Very Rev. Dr. Spratt. In 1840, the Royal Agricultural Society for Ireland founded. In 1841, the first town

council elected under the new Irish Municipal Act. Daniel O'Connell, Esq., M.P., was sworn in the first Lord Mayor under it. Irish Archæological Society, for the publication of works illustrative of the ancient history and antiquity of Ireland instituted. In 1842, the Irish Collegiate School, and six scholarships established, in Trinity College, for the encouragement of the Irish language. Building of the National Bank of Ireland, in College Green, commenced. In 1843, the intended monster meeting at Clontarf, to be held the 8th October, was prevented by the issuing of a proclamation by the government on the previous day. A few days after informations were lodged against Daniel O'Connell, M.P., John O'Connell, M.P., Rev. Thomas Teirney, Rev. Peter James Tyrell, Richard Barrett, Charles Gavan Duffy, John Gray, Thomas Mathew Ray, and Thomas Steel, for a misdemeanour, and proceedings commenced in the Court of Queen's Bench. In 1844, their trial and conviction took place, and they were committed to prison, but were released 6th September, on a reversal of the judgment by the House of Peers. In 1847, intelligence of the death of Daniel O'Connell, on the 15th May, reached the city. The death of the Earl of Besborough, Lord-Lieutenant, occurred the 16th May. The remains of O'Connell were interred in Mount Prospect Cemetery, Glasnevin, the 5th August: his heart had been embalmed at Genoa, and sent to the Irish College in Rome to be preserved there. In 1848, John Mitchel was convicted of seditious publications in the "United Irishman" newspaper, and sentenced to fourteen years' transportation, which was peremptorily put in force; he was in the first instance dispatched to Bermuda, but subsequently sent to Australia. The city proclaimed under the Crime and Outrage Act. The Habeas Corpus Suspension Act in force. The confederate clubs proclaimed illegal by the Lord-Lieutenant. Warrants issued against the young Ireland leaders, who had proceeded from Dublin to organize clubs in the southern districts. Proclamations issued by the government, offering a reward of £500 for the arrest of William Smith O'Brien, and £300 for the arrest of T. F. Meagher, John Dillon, and Michael Doheny. August 5th, committal of William Smith O'Brien to Kilmainham Gaol, having been arrested at the Thurles Railway Station. August 12, commitment of Messrs.

Meagher, O'Donoghue, and Leyne, charged with high treason. August 14, conviction of John Martin for seditious publications in "The Felon" newspaper, and sentenced to ten years' transportation. November 1, conviction of Kevin Izod O'Dogherty for publications in "The Tribune," sentenced to ten years' transportation. William Smith O'Brien, T. F. Meagher, T. B. Mac Manus, and Patrick O'Donoghue, sentenced to death at the Clonmel Special Commission; brought to Dublin, and lodged in Kilmainham Gaol, pending the decision of the Court of Queen's Bench on the Writs of Error issued by them. In 1849, the Court of Queen's Bench gave judgment, 16th January, on the Writs of Error, and confirmed the sentence of the Court of Clonmel. The cholera made its appearance in April, and committed great ravages for several months. April 14, Charles Gavan Duffy, proprietor of "The Nation" newspaper discharged from custody on bail, the jury by whom he was tried disagreeing as to the charge of treason for which he was indicted. July 5th, Messrs. O'Brien, Meagher, Mac Manus, and O'Donoghue, the sentence of death against them being commuted to transportation for life, were dispatched by Her Majesty's ship "Swift," to Van Dieman's Land. The Royal Squadron, consisting of ten war-steamers, including the Victoria and Albert Yacht, having on board Her Majesty Queen Victoria, Prince Albert, and their children, the Prince of Wales, the Princess Royal, Prince Alfred, and the Princess Alice, arrived in Kingstown, from Cork, at about eight o'clock in the evening of the 5th August. The Queen made her public entry into the city the following day, and after visiting the public institutions, and lunching at Carton, with the Duke of Leinster, embarked on the 10th, at Kingstown, and proceeded to Belfast. In 1850, April 8th, there was an aggregate meeting of the citizens to petition against the abolition of the Irish vicerealty. On the 18th, the city was visited by a violent thunder storm, which destroyed property to the extent of £27,000. On the 18th November, the Catholic Archbishop, Dr. Murray, and the clergy of the diocese met, and agreed to an address of congratulation to Cardinal Wiseman and the English Catholics, on the restoration of the Catholic Hierarchy in England. In 1851, the prelates of the Irish Established Church addressed the Archbishop of Can-

terbury, complaining of their not being included as a component part of the Church of England in the memorial addressed by the English Bishops to the Queen on the restoration of the Catholic hierarchy in England. January 21st, the Lord Mayor, Benjamin Lee Guinness gave his inaugural banquet at the Mansion House on a scale of great magnificence. The Town Council addressed the Queen, and forwarded petitions to both Houses of Parliament against the abolition of the Irish vice-royalty. February 25th, a conference of the Catholic prelates in Marlborough Street, at which it was resolved to memorial the Queen, address the Catholics of Ireland, and petition the Lords and Commons against the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill. April 29th, a meeting of the Irish Catholics at the Rotundo to protest against the Bill. August 5th, a meeting convened by the Lord Mayor to hear Mr. Horace Greeley's opinions, and the views entertained by him and his friends in the United States, on the subject of the establishment of a Transatlantic Steam-Packet Station on the Irish coast. August 19th, an Aggregate Meeting of the Catholics of Ireland took place, when it was unanimously resolved that "An Act lately passed by the Imperial Parliament, commonly called the Ecclesiastical Titles Act, was a violation of the compact contained in the Catholic Relief Act of 1829, and subversive of the great principle of religious liberty;" and they solemnly pledged themselves to use every legitimate means within the constitution to obtain a repeal of that Act, and every other statute which imposes on the Catholics of the empire any civil or religious disability whatsoever; and in furtherance of these objects, they deemed it necessary to establish a Catholic Defence Association, which was accordingly established. August 21st, a meeting was convened at the Mansion House to consider what measures should be adopted to ensure a direct steam communication between Ireland and America; when it was resolved, that a joint-stock company should be formed, with a capital of £500,000, to carry into effect this desirable object, and a provisional committee was accordingly appointed. October 17th, the first meeting of the Catholic Defence Association was held in the Hall of the Mechanics' Institute. In 1852, January 27th, a meeting of the Protestants of Dublin was held at the Rotundo, to petition Parlia-

ment against the endowment to Maynooth College. March 2nd, Lord Clarendon departed from Dublin, and was succeeded in the vice-royalty by the Earl of Eglintop. On the 10th, a meeting of the citizens took place, the Lord Mayor in the chair, when petitions to Parliament were adopted in favour of Mr. Sharman Crawford's Landlord and Tenant Right Bill. April 2nd, the Right Rev. Dr. Cullen elected successor to Dr. Murray by the parish priests of the archdiocese. June 1st, the electric telegraph laid down between Dublin and Holyhead; the wire, seventy miles long, was subsequently abandoned. June 24th, William Dargan, Esq., railway contractor, placed at the disposal of the Royal Dublin Society £20,000, and subsequently £6,000 additional, towards the expense of the contemplated Dublin Exhibition. June 29th, the Right Rev. Dr. Cullen was enthroned as Catholic Archbishop in the church of the Conception, Marlborough Street. September 8th, a conference of the Irish members, held in the Assembly Rooms, William Street, to devise measures for securing the success of Mr. S. Crawford's Tenant-Right Bill in Parliament. October 25th, the Lord-Lieutenant visited the site of the building to be erected for the great Industrial Exhibition, when the ceremony of commencing the building was performed by his Excellency; the design was by Sir John Benson, C. E. October 28th, a conference of the Religious Equality Association was held in the Rotundo, the main object of which was stated to be—the abolition of the present church establishment in Ireland, and the application of its revenues to purely secular purposes, leaving all sects to support their own clergy; or, as an alternative, these revenues to be equally apportioned among the several religious sects—a resolution also passed disclaiming any intention of demanding any portion of it for the exclusive use of the Catholic church, and requiring the liberal Irish members to continue independent of and in opposition to every government that will not concede perfect religious equality. November 10th, a shock of an earthquake felt in the city at ten minutes past four in the morning. December 25th, a storm which continued two days, levelled several houses, and otherwise damaged the city and suburbs. 1853, February 2nd, the Earl of St. Germain's arrived as Lord-Lieutenant. May 12th, the Great Industrial Exhibition in

Merrion Square was opened in presence of the Lord-Lieutenant, a numerous assemblage of the nobility, and fifteen thousand of the Irish people. August 29th, Her Majesty Queen Victoria, Prince Albert, and the Prince of Wales, arrived in Dublin to visit it. October 31st, the Exhibition closed. The Lord-Lieutenant, Mr. Dargan, and a numerous assemblage, were present, and a grand musical entertainment was given on the occasion.

The following are some of the eminent men that Dublin gave birth to:—Richard Stanihurst, born 1569, and Archbishop Usher, 1580, historians; James Ware, antiquarian, in 1594; William Molyneux, mathematician, astronomer, and patriot, M.P. for Trinity College, in 1652; Jonathan Swift, Dean of St. Patrick's, born in Hoeys Court, in 1667; Thomas Fry, the first manufacturer of porcelain in England, in 1710; James M'Ardle, engraver, 1710; Springer Barry, a celebrated actor, in 1722; Isaac Bickerstaff, dramatist, 1732; James Caulfield, first Earl of Charlemont, 1738; Sir Philip Francis, author and statesman, in 1740; Edward Malone, critic and antiquary, 1741; John Fitzgibbon, Earl of Clare, Henry Grattan, statesman and orator, John Hickey, sculptor, 1756; John Cooper Walker, antiquary, 1761; Thomas Moore, Ireland's honoured bard, and many others, too numerous to insert here.

The PUBLIC BUILDINGS connected with the Civil Service are—Dublin Castle, the Courts of Law and Equity, the King's Inn, the Custom-House, and Post-Office. The Commercial Structures are—the Bank of Ireland, Royal Exchange (now the City Hall), the Commercial Buildings, Corn Exchange, and Linen Hall. The Educational Institutions are—Trinity College, the National Schools, the Kildare Street Schools, the College of Surgeons, Apothecaries' Hall, the Dublin Society, Royal Irish Academy, Hibernia Academy for Paintings by Native Artists, Royal Irish Institution for Ancient Paintings, and the Blue Coat School. The Churches and other places of public worship are—the two Cathedrals: the Holy Trinity, commonly called Christ Church, founded A. D. 1038, by Setrick, King of the Danes, aided by Douat, Bishop of Dublin; and the Cathedral Church of St. Patrick: 20 Protestant parochial

Churches, and 21 non-parochial; the Catholic Cathedral, commonly called the Church of the Conception, in Marlborough Street, founded by the Archbishop Murray in 1815, and 9 parochial Catholic Churches, and several others recently erected; as well as Augustinian, Franciscan, Dominican, Capuchin, calcid and discalcid Carmelite Friaries; 2 Jesuits' Churches; 3 Monasteries and 26 Convents in and about Dublin; 4 Presbyterian, 2 Unitarian, 3 Independents, 1 Seceding, 2 Primitive Wesleyan and 5 Wesleyan Methodist; 2 Friends' Society; 1 Baptist, 1 Moravian, 1 German Lutheran, 1 Welch Methodist, and 1 Jews' Synagogue. The Hospitals are—the Royal Hospital, Kilmainham; Simpson's for blind and gouty patients, the Lying-in, the Female Orphan House, St. Patrick's Infirmary, the Hospital of Incurables, the Lock Hospital, Sir Patrick Dun's, Stevens's, Mercers', Meath and St. Vincent's, the House of Recovery for Fever, *Maison de Santé*, for patients who contribute some portion of the expense while there; and several other medical and charitable institutions. Places of Amusement are—the Theatre Royal, Queen's Theatre, Rotundo, and Portobello Gardens. The Barracks are—the Royal, Castle, Richmond, Portobello, Beggar's Bush, Phoenix Park, and Pigeon Houses, capable of accommodating 284 officers, 5,483 soldiers, 420 patients, and affording stabling for 1,185 horses. The particulars of some of the most important of these Public Buildings shall be given, but space will not admit of more than merely noticing the rest.

Dublin Castle, previous to the reign of Elizabeth, was used as a military fortress and state prison; in her reign it became the residence of the Lord Deputy, and since then has been the seat of the Irish government. The building is formed of two quadrangles, the upper and lower yards:—the upper is 280 feet long by 130 wide, and contains the apartments appropriated to the Lord-Lieutenant and *suite*, the council-chamber, and offices connected therewith. The entrance is by a massive gateway on the north side, over which is a figure of Justice, and towards the east end is a corresponding gateway, not used, with a figure of Fortitude, both by Van Nost. The approach to the vice-regal apartments is under a colonnade on the south side by a fine staircase, which leads to

the ball-room, called St. Patrick's Hall. Between the gateway on the north side, and the chamberlain's and other apartments, is a range of buildings ornamented by Ionic columns rising from a rusticated basement supporting a cornice and pediment, above which is Bedford Tower, emblazoned with Corinthian pillars, and surmounted by a lofty dome, from which the royal standard is displayed on days of state. The lower yard is an irregular area of 250 feet long by 220 feet wide, in which are the treasury buildings, the ordnance department, and office of the quarter-master; the stables, riding-house, and residence of the master of the horse. East of the Record Tower is the Chapel, rebuilt at an expense of £42,000 in 1814. It is a very fine structure, the interior is lighted by six windows of elegant design, and embellished with stained glass. On the north side of the Liffey is the Vice-regal Lodge, in the Phoenix Park, which comprises an area of 1,759 acres. It derives its name from the Irish of *Fenniski*, "a spring of clear water," corrupted into Phoenix. Independent of the Lord-Lieutenant's, the chief and under secretaries, and the ranger, have lodges here: there are about 160 acres under the immediate vice-regal demesne and gardens. There is a powder magazine, erected in 1738, defended by ten 24-pounders. The buildings used by the Ordnance for the trigonometrical survey of Ireland, the Hibernia School for soldier's children, the Military Infirmary, and the gardens of the Zoological Society are also here.

The Bank of Ireland properly takes precedence of all the public buildings in the metropolis. This magnificent edifice, once the Parliament House, occupied ten years in the construction, and was finished in 1738, at a cost of £42,000, a sum so moderate and apparently so inadequate to the purpose, that it is almost incredible. It is formed altogether of Portland stone, having a front in College Green of Ionic columns, arranged with great architectural taste and judgment, the interior corresponding with its outward magnificence; yet little or nothing is known of the architect, and the particulars of its erection is involved in uncertainty. A considerable part of the original building was consumed by fire, 27th February, 1792; and the eastern and western fronts renewed by James Gandon. When these were completed, it formed the most splendid structure in the

kingdom, or probably in the empire. Still, adherence to the strict rules of architecture has not been observed, as the portico on the east-side, adjoining Westmoreland Street, which formed the entrance to the House of Lords, is supported by Corinthian pillars, supporting a curvated cornice, improvised by a triangular pediment, on the apex of which are statues of Fortitude, with Justice at one end and Liberty at the other. While these were in progress of erection, a cotemporary of Gandons asked him by what order of architecture he could reconcile these with the Ionic columns in College Green; when he aptly replied, by one that cannot be questioned, "an order of the Lords." The chamber formerly called the House of Lords still remains unaltered, and is appropriated to the use of the Court of Proprietors. It is of rectangular form, with a semi-circular recess at one extremity, in which the throne was placed, and in which there is now a statue in white marble of George III. The Governor and Company of the Bank of Ireland, after the Act of Union, purchased from the government this superb building, or more likely rented it, as there is a charge of £8,000 for rent in their annual disbursements; an Act was passed in 1802, to convey it to them for the purposes of a national bank. Previous to their occupying it, the business of the bank was carried on in Mary's Abbey, the north side of the Liffey.

The Custom-House, as a public building, is certainly next to the bank in importance, and is in many respects its equal in point of extent and magnificence. It was commenced in 1781, and was opened for the transaction of business, November 7th, 1791. It was designed and erected by James Gandon, at a cost of £255,000, although the original estimate was only £163,363. It is 375 feet in length, and 209 in depth, presenting four fronts variously designed — that facing the river Liffey being the principal: it is composed of pavilions at each end, joined by arcades, and united in the centre. The pavilions are terminated with the arms of Ireland, in a shield decorated with fruits and flowers, and supported by a lion and unicorn. The centre presents a group of figures, two of which represent England and Ireland embracing, and holding in their hands emblems of peace and liberty: they are seated in a naval car drawn by sea-horses, and followed by a fleet of merchant ships from all

nations. On the right of Britannia is Neptune expelling Envy and Discord. On the attic are placed four allegorical statues alluding to Navigation, Commerce, Industry, and Riches. A magnificent dome, 125 feet high, rises in the centre, with a pedestal, on which is placed a statue, sixteen feet high, of Hope resting on her anchor. The key-stones of the arches are decorated with colossal heads, emblematic of the principal rivers and provinces of Ireland; and are executed in a bold and masterly style by E. Smyth, a native artist. The south point is composed of Portland stone; the other three of white granite: over the central columns of the north front are four statues, representing Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. The great staircase, with its Ionic colonnade, unites taste with grandeur and novelty of design. The long room is seventy feet long, sixty-five wide, and thirty in height. The simple arrangement of all its interior parts contributes to the general and pleasing effect of light and shade, which harmonize the whole. And here it stands, with all its architectural grandeur, a monument on record of one of the many flagrant acts of injustice inflicted by the English government and parliament on the metropolis of Ireland: all its departments, one after another, having been swept away and assimilated with those in London. The commercial business of the port might now be done in a corner of this spacious building. Another portion of it is appropriated to the stamp-office, which formerly occupied Powerscourt House, in William Street. This fine building would make a splendid royal palace, could it only be removed a mile from its present locality, it being built on the very margin of the Liffey, with a wharf in front, and the road to the packet-station skirting the chief entrance: defects which not only prohibit the possibility of its being so appropriated, but have materially spoiled the beauty and effect of this magnificent structure. The old Custom-House was situated in Essex Street; and was built in 1707. In seventy years it became so dilapidated, and the trade of the port had increased so considerably, that the new building to some extent was required.

The Royal Exchange was ten years in the construction, it being commenced by T. Cooley, an Irish architect, in 1769, and finished

in 1779. It was built by means of a lottery, which the merchants of Dublin established and conducted during that period with great spirit and integrity, and which produced £65,000. Its form is a square of one hundred feet, with three fronts, composed of Portland stone, and of the Corinthian order, with a grand, well-proportioned dome in the centre, supported by twelve fluted pillars, which form a circular walk. Here, on a white marble pedestal, (by Van Nost,) is a statue of George III., in Roman military costume. At the north side are two geometrical staircases, on one of which is placed a marble statue of the patriotic doctor, Charles Lucas, executed by E. Smyth, and erected by his fellow-citizens as a testimonial of their respect and gratitude. In the hall beneath is a fine marble statue of the late Henry Grattan, who succeeded Lucas in his patriotic career. The front commands an excellent view of Parliament Street, Essex Bridge, and Capel Street. Before the assimilation of the English and Irish currency, change was held here three times a week, and very considerable monetary transactions took place in English bills; but there was not much business done in the purchase and sale of merchandize, which were generally effected at the Commercial Buildings, Dame Street, where a numerous attendance of merchants took place daily between the hours of two and four o'clock in the afternoon. In the area at the rear of the building, several brokers had their offices, and almost all the sales of produce by public auction took place there. The monetary business with England and foreign parts is now done through the different banks. The Commissioners of Bankruptcy for years held their sittings in the upper part of the Exchange, but now the Court of Bankruptcy engrosses that business also. So that, with the exception of an occasional public meeting held here, silence and solitude reigned throughout the building for many years. In 1852, however, the corporation converted it into the City Hall, which name it now bears.

Trinity College is situated on the site of the suppressed monastery of All Hallow's or All Saint's, on Hoggins', now College, Green. It consists of three spacious quadrangles, erected after designs by Sir William Chambers. The principal front, which

occupies the whole of the east side of College Green, is 380 feet long, built of Portland stone, and consists of a projective centre, ornamented with four three-quarter Corinthian columns, supporting an inscribed cornice and pediment, under which is the principal entrance. At the extremity of the façade is a projective pile of square buildings decorated with duplicate pilasters of the same order, between which is a noble Venetian window, inscribed with festoons of flowers and fruit; and above the cornice rises an attic, surmounted by a balustrade. The entrance is by an octangular vestibule, and leads to the first quadrangle, called Parliamentary Square, which is 316 feet long and 212 in width. It contains apartments for the fellows and students, the chapel, the theatre, and the refectory. In the chapel is a very fine monument of black and white marble, and porphyry, which was executed in Rome, by Heniston, an Irish artist, at an expense of £2,000, and erected to the memory of Dr. Baldwin, one of the Provosts, who died in 1758, bequeathing £80,000 to the University. The second quadrangle is called the Library Square, and is 265 feet in length and 214 in width. Three sides of it are occupied by students' apartments. The fourth side is a fine building of granite. It consists of a centre and two pavilions; in the western wing is the library, a magnificent gallery, 210 feet in length, forty-one feet wide, and forty feet high. At the extremity of the room is an apartment, fifty-two feet long, which contains the Fagel library, over which is the apartment containing those valuable MSS. for which the University is so famed. To the north of the Library Square is the third quadrangle, and is wholly appropriated to chambers for the students. A temporary building near the centre contained the great bell, formerly suspended in a steeple, which was part of the ancient establishment. A tower is now preparing for its reception, called the Bell Tower. It is from a design of Charles Lannyon's. The Protestant primate laid the first stone, and made a gift of £12,000 towards its erection. The museum is a handsome apartment, sixty feet long, by forty feet wide, and is over the vestibule at the entrance. There is a printing-office, a laboratory, and schools of anatomy. A fine garden for the use of the fellows, and a park for the students; some years ago this was excluded from public view by a

dilapidated wall, which occupied one side of Nassau Street: it has been since removed, and an iron paling substituted, which is a great improvement to that locality.

The Four Courts.—The erection of this building was commenced in 1786, by T. Cooley, but, in consequence of his death, was finished by Gandon, at an expense of £200,000. It is situated on the north side of the Liffey, and is an object of great beauty and attraction, whether viewed on the spot, or at a remote distance. The extent of the structure is 433 feet long, the wings being ninety-nine feet by fifty in depth. The centre pile is 140 feet square, and forms two court-yards, which contain the Law-Offices, the Rolls, Hanaper, Queen's Bench, and Remembrancer's being on the western, and those of the Exchequer on the eastern side. It contains a spacious hall, sixty-four feet in diameter, with which the Four Courts communicate; but they are confined in extent, and afford but indifferent accommodation to the public. They consist of the Courts of Chancery, the Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer. The principal front is composed of six columns of the Corinthian order, and on the pediment over the portico are statues of Moses in the centre, and Justice and Mercy on either side; on the corners are sitting statues of Wisdom and Authority. The hall is surrounded by Corinthian columns, surmounted by a splendid dome, a conspicuous object seen from all parts of the city and suburbs. In this dome are eight windows, which light the hall, and between them are eight colossal statues in *alto-relievo*, emblematic of Liberty, Justice, Wisdom, Prudence, Eloquence, Mercy, and Punishment. There are also medallions of the principal law-givers that have existed, and tablets representing the most interesting events in legal history. Within the last few years there have been elegant and large additions made to this building; the principal are the Rolls, Nisi Prius, and Bankruptcy Courts; a library for the use of the bar; and a coffee-room for the accommodation of the public: these have been constructed at the rear of the building, which was formerly disfigured by some of the greatest nuisances in the city. The Courts of Law were, from a remote period, situated in Christ's Church Lane, with the excep-

tion of the Courts of Common Pleas and Exchequer, which, strange enough, in the reign of Edward III. were held in Carlow. The Dublin courts were rebuilt in 1693; but the situation was inconvenient, and they were difficult of access. A new building and site were, therefore, required, and on the 5th June, 1795, the royal assent was given to an Act for establishing the present courts of law and equity, and constituting the same to be within the county of the city of Dublin, and county of Dublin.

The General Post-Office.—The erection of this fine building was commenced in 1815, from a design, and under the superintendence of Francis Johnson. It is 223 feet in length, 150 feet in depth, and 50 feet in height. There is a grand portico in front, which stands in Sackville Street, consisting of a pediment, supported by six massive Ionic columns, and surmounted by three finely-executed figures, representing Hibernia resting on her spear, harp, and shield; Mercury, with his caduceus and purse; and Fidelity, with the forefinger of one hand on her lip, and a key in the other. The pediment is ornamented with the royal arms, and a fine bulustrade at top gives a masterly finish to the whole. It is built of chiselled granite, with the exception of the portico, which is of Portland stone. For the purposes to which it is appropriated, it is most eligibly situated; and for architectural beauty it may vie with any public edifice in the kingdom. The old General Post-Office was situated in College Green, afterwards converted into the arcade; but although central, it was, from its limited dimensions, quite inadequate to the business.

Nelson's Pillar is nearly in front of the Post-Office, in the centre of Sackville Street, which many think spoils the view of this remarkably fine street instead of ornamenting it: but if there was another public building similar to the Post-Office erected on the opposite side, the column, which is fluted, and symmetrically formed of cut stone, with a figure of Nelson on the top, would then contribute materially to beautify it.

The Rotundo and Lying-in Hospital are situated at the N.W. extremity of one of the finest streets in Europe, (Sackville Street,)

being 125 feet wide. The houses are five stories high, uniform, and built of brick and cut stone. The gardens attached to the Rotundo are surrounded by the spacious and elegant houses comprising Cavendish, Granby, and Palace Rows, which form Rutland Square. The interior of the Rotundo, for extent and accommodation, is probably superior to anything of the kind in Europe; the superficial extent being 21,000 feet. The ball-room is eighty-six feet in length, and of proportionable breadth; a card-room sixty-six feet; a tea-room fifty-four feet; a grand supper-room eighty-six feet; a minor supper-room fifty-four feet; a hall forty feet; a waiting-room thirty-six feet; four dressing-rooms twenty feet each; a chairman's or servants hall forty feet; a vestibule twenty feet in length; besides an extensive range of kitchen apartments and other offices. The rooms are furnished with every convenience, and decorated with a number of transparencies, paintings, and chandeliers. The gardens are tastefully laid out with gravel walks, kept in good repair, and, with the building, are surrounded by 100 lamps. The Hospital was opened for patients in 1756: it is a light and elegant building, ornamented at the north and south with two uniform architectural fronts. A handsome steeple rises in the centre, and the wings are formed by semi-circular colonnades. Upwards of 100,000 poor women have been delivered in this house, some of whom had three, and one of them four children at a birth.

THE BRIDGES.—There are nine bridges on the Liffey, which runs through the centre of the city from west to east. *Carlisle Bridge* is a handsome structure, composed of three arches of cut stone, erected by James Gandon; it was commenced in 1791 and opened in July, 1795. It is ten feet wider than Westminster Bridge, and forms one of the greatest thoroughfares in Dublin, being the principal communication over the Liffey from the north-east to the south-east parts of the metropolis. With the exception of Waterloo Bridge, in London, there is not probably another in Europe from which there is so fine a view. Sackville Street, in appearance so noble, is seen to the north, Nelson's pillar in the centre, with the Post-Office by its side, and at the extremity the Lying-in Hospital and Rotundo; to the south, Wesmorland Street,

terminating with the splendid buildings, the Bank and Trinity College; to the west, the Four Courts, several fine bridges, and a long line of quays on both sides the river; and on the east, the superb Custom House, with the shipping in the river to the extremity of the north wall. *Essex Bridge* is composed of five arches of cut stone; it affords a communication from Capel Street on the north to Parliament Street on the south side, and leads in a direct line to the Castle and the Exchange; it was erected in 1775 on the site of a former structure of the same name, and cost £20,661. The *Iron Bridge*, which spans the Liffey with a single arch of 140 feet, about midway between these two, is a light, handsome, and convenient structure, but having been erected at the expense of some enterprising individuals, a toll of one halfpenny is exacted from pedestrians, to whom it is only accessible; it cost £3,000. *Richmond Bridge*, built on the site where Ormond Bridge once stood, unites Wine-tavern Street with Mountrath Street; it cost £25,800, and was opened on St. Patrick's day, 1816. *Whitworth Bridge* supplies the place of the old bridge built by the Friars of St. Dominick, and which at one time was the only one on the river; it is composed of three arches, and connects Bridge Street with Church Street. *Queen's Bridge*, built, in 1768, of hewn stone, connects Bridgefoot Street with Queen Street. *Barrack Bridge*, formerly called Bloody Bridge, connecting Watling Street with the quay leading to the Royal Barracks; it was formerly constructed of wood. *King's Bridge* connects the military road with the south-east entrance to the Phoenix Park; it consists of a single arch of cast iron, 100 feet span, and was constructed as a testimonial to commemorate the visit of George IV., at a cost of £13,000. *Sarah Bridge*, formerly Island Bridge, called after the Countess of Westmorland, who laid the first stone of the new structure in 1791. It is a superb arch, 104 feet in span, and the key-stone is 30 feet above low water mark; it connects the village of Island Bridge with the north-western road. From the symmetry and elegance of this bridge it has been termed the Irish Rialto.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, AND COMMERCE.—The woollen trade, previous to the prohibitory laws passed in the reign of William III.,

was cultivated with considerable success in that part of the city called the Liberties, which were then inhabited by opulent manufacturers. A remnant of the trade still continued to linger in these localities when, in 1773, the Dublin Society came forward to encourage it, and in the interim to 1792, it had revived in some degree, there being 400 looms operating on broad, and 100 on narrow cloth, giving employment to 5,000 persons; but this was only transitory, and even the philanthropic efforts were unavailing of Mr. T. Pleasant, who erected a house which cost him £13,000, to enable the weavers to tenter their cloth in all weathers. The linen manufacture, after the suppression of the woollen, notwithstanding the encouragement given by the Legislature and the Linen Board, did not take root in the metropolis, although it became a considerable mart for the sale of that article. The Linen Hall was erected in 1726, with commodious stores, under the direction of the government, and it continued for more than eighty years to be the great emporium for the sale of linen cloth and yarn for all the manufacturing districts, not even excepting that of Belfast. Some of the wealthiest and most extensive houses of the last century in the city, such as Messrs. Samuel Dick & Co., Chambers, Todd, & Co., William Harkness, &c., were employed in it, and the London as well as foreign houses made a great portion of their purchases from them. Belfast has, however, for some years, engrossed this trade almost exclusively; there being only now ten linen factors in Dublin. The cotton manufacture was introduced in 1761, and in 1779 Mr. R. Brooks embarked a considerable capital in it, and it was also encouraged by grants from parliament; but after the protecting duties were withdrawn, it became almost extinct. The silk manufacture was introduced by the French refugees, who settled in Dublin after the revocation of the edict of Nantes, about the year 1685. In 1764 an Act of Parliament placed them under the direction of the Dublin Society; a warehouse was established in Parliament Street, under the management of a board of directors, composed of twelve noblemen, and a committee of twelve persons chosen by the weavers, the Society allowing them 5 per cent. on all goods sold therein. While thus managed the trade averaged £70,000 per annum, and the manufacture attained a high degree

of perfection ; but by an Act passed in the 26th year of Geo. III., the Society was prohibited from appropriating any of its funds to this laudable purpose. The warehouse was consequently discontinued, and the manufacture rapidly declined, with the exception of one branch, tabinets and poplins, for the production of which Dublin has been so justly celebrated. This beautiful fabric is composed of wool and silk, the weft being of the former and the warp of the latter material. This trade was seriously affected by the cessation of the Union protecting duties in 1820 : large quantities of English-made silks of all kinds were then forced on the Dublin market, and sold by public auction, and the Irish manufacturer, unable to compete with such a process, the number of looms was reduced from 2,000 to about 200, while the weavers were obliged to seek employment in England, which they easily obtained, as they were excellent workmen. The specimens on show at the late Dublin Exhibition do infinite credit to all the manufacturers engaged in the trade—Messrs. Fry & Co., Pim Brothers & Co., Todd, Burns, & Co., Fenton & Co., R. Atkinson & Co., and Kelly and Leech, had looms in full operation on the premises. Messrs. Pim's factory in William Street, and Messrs. Fry's in the Combe, are well arranged, and in full operation ; the former have been directing their attention to weaving whole silks, which have proved equal to the best manufactured in Macclesfield or Manchester, and the latter have been manufacturing some splendid tapestry for window curtains, &c. Independent of the operations in the factories, a considerable portion of the work is done by weavers in their homes, and between winders, warpers, dyers, &c., there cannot be less than 1,000 persons employed on this manufacture. The leather trade in Dublin some years ago was carried on extensively ; there are still in existence 44 tanners and skimmers, and 17 curriers. The other manufactures are—28 iron and metal, and 21 brass founders ; some of these combine both brass and iron in their establishments. There are also several bell founders : the bells cast by Mr. J. Murphy, Thomas Street, and Mr. T. Hodges, of Abbey Street, are in great repute. There are also several establishments in which gold and silver are wrought equal to any in England. The number of distillers and rectifiers are 21 ; there are only 5 of these, however, who

distil whiskey. There are 25 brewers and maltsters, but of these there are only 7 who have breweries on a large scale: Messrs. A. Guinness, Sons, & Co., Jameson, Pim, & Co., Manders & Co., P. & J. Sweetman, R. & J. Watkins, D'Arcy & Co., and Lynch & Co. The stout and ale made by these establishments are in high repute, not only in Ireland but in England, the colonies, and the East Indies. Of the maltsters, Mr. Peter Cahill, who has converted the Byrneshill brewery into a malting establishment, appears to be the most extensive. There are 14 manufacturers and dealers in glass, but those most extensive in the trade are—Mr. W. Whyte, Marlborough Street, the Messrs. Warrens, and Gregg & Son; the specimens of cut flint glass, &c., shown at the late Exhibition could not be excelled—a vase and other articles of Mr. Whyte's manufacture, in particular, attracted universal admiration. The coach and car makers are 43 in number, at the head of the trade are Messrs. Hutton and Son, Summerhill, whose superior manufacture has even obtained the praise of royalty. There are 4 sailcloth and canvass manufactories; 4 for vitriol and bleaching stuffs; 9 for glue and size; 21 paper and vellum; 29 silk and cotton printers; 2 calico printers; 85 soap and candle; 18 hatters; and 44 snuff and tobacco manufacturers and dealers, of these, Messrs. Lundy Foot & Co., so long celebrated for their snuff, are the most extensive: there has been, however, a serious decrease on the quantity of tobacco imported for the five years ending the 5th January, 1851, compared with the five previous years, as will appear in the Commercial Statistics. The number of steam-engines employed in various manufactures in Dublin and its neighbourhood is 40, and 838 horse power.

The commerce of Dublin, although it has not increased in the same ratio as that of Belfast, has, notwithstanding the many difficulties it has had to contend with since the Union, maintained its position, and the port still contributes nearly one-half the customs revenue of Ireland, and considerably more than double the amount of Belfast. Within the last half century it has progressively increased in importance. In 1803 the largest vessel belonging to the port was the *Columbus*, owned by Furlong, 309 tons register; and the largest that entered it the same year was the *Copernicus*,

406 tons : while in 1844 vessels of much greater tonnage trafficked with the port; one of these was the *Jane Augusta*, 948 tons register, belonging to Dublin, owned by J. Smith, Although steam was in operation from the port of Dublin since 1816, still it was not applied to the transmission of goods until 1824. The City of Dublin Steam Packet Company in that year established a line of steam boats between that port and Liverpool, and in 1825 another to Belfast for goods and passengers. This company was formed with a capital of £450,000, in shares of £50 and £100 each : £350,000 of which is held by Dublin proprietors. It has 16 steam vessels, measuring 3,985 tons, exclusive of their engine rooms, their gross tonnage amounting to nearly 7,000 tons : these are principally employed in the goods and passenger trade between this port and Liverpool. It also has the conveyance of the English mails, which are despatched twice a day from Kingstown to Holyhead by their steamers. The British and Irish Steam Packet Company have seven steamers, of 2,247 tons net register, plying between this port, London, and Belfast, and calling at the intermediate ports of Falmouth, Plymouth, and Portsmouth. The Dublin and Glasgow Sailing and Steam Packet Company has 3 steamers, net tonnage 837, gross 1,573 tons, which trade between Cork, Bristol, Dublin, Belfast, and Glasgow. The St. George Steam Packet Company has now only 1 steamer, of 218 net tons, employed in the same trade. The Dublin and Liverpool Steam Ship-building Company have 7 steamers, net 2,483, gross 4,183 tons, employed in that trade. Messrs. Fagan, Ward, and other individuals have also steamers variously employed. The number of steamers this year, 1854, belonging to this port is 46, measuring 11,775 net tons, and, with engine rooms, must amount to nearly 20,000 tons. The number of vessels and tonnage entering this port for the year ending 5th January, 1792, was 2,807, of 288,592 tons. In 1800 there were 2,779, of 280,539 tons. In 1815 there were 3,046, of 304,813 tons ; and in 1823 they increased to 3,412 vessels, of 363,685 tons. The following Tables show the general trade of the port for 10 years, commencing the 5th January, 1840, and ending the 5th January, 1850.

DUBLIN.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of this Port, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years, ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the preceding five years.

Years ending January 5th.	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Shipping.		Customs' Duties Collected.										
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					Total Inwards.					Foreign Trade.								British and Coasting Trade.					Total Outwards.				
	British.			Foreign.		Total.					British.			Foreign.		Total.								British.			Foreign.		Total.				
	Vess.		Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.				Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	
1841..	192	32817	57	7641	249	40458	5128	552480	5377	592938	119	23770	53	7095	172	30865	3026	333791	3198	364656	377	30407	887870										
1842..	235	41049	68	8839	303	49888	5238	539576	6541	689464	108	22594	64	8291	172	30865	3467	349816	3639	380701	380	30305	965623										
1843..	217	38529	41	5966	244	44493	5251	552204	5512	596690	97	21043	45	5986	142	27029	2638	316327	2780	343356	388	33364	958687										
1844..	245	46235	50	7443	295	53678	5097	545886	5392	599564	105	25673	48	7232	153	32925	2549	318684	2702	351609	397	33489	971907										
1845..	243	43062	43	5644	286	48706	5140	569456	5426	618162	149	33621	42	5630	191	39251	2678	343938	2869	383189	398	34392	1032696										
	1132	201692	262	35533	1394	237225	25854	2759602	27248	2996827	578	126701	252	34254	830	167955	14358	1662556	15188	1823511	1940	161957	4816783										
1846..	265	63390	43	6462	308	69852	5367	586240	5675	656092	165	42040	45	6781	210	48821	2762	363039	2972	411860	416	37220	1012089										
1847..	254	55209	84	16783	338	71992	5948	674720	6286	746712	197	51126	81	16533	278	67659	2481	376102	2759	443761	451	41631	1054675										
1848..	359	67125	134	28321	493	95446	5335	615313	5828	710759	216	51928	126	25917	342	77845	2759	393830	3101	473675	453	42418	980289										
1849..	280	59829	136	23486	416	83315	5677	659545	6093	742860	140	39322	114	19977	234	59299	2898	437800	3152	497099	470	42339	978511										
1850..	331	63263	141	27548	492	90811	5721	658398	6213	749209	153	41813	147	27796	300	69609	3053	457526	3353	527135	475	42566	924513										
1846 to '50	1509	308816	538	102600	2047	411416	28048	3194216	30095	3605632	871	226229	513	97004	1384	332323	13953	2030297	15337	2353530	2265	206074	4950077										
1840 to '45	1132	201692	262	35533	1394	237225	25854	2759602	27248	2996827	578	126701	252	34254	830	160955	14358	1662556	15188	1823511	1940	161957	4816783										
1840 to '50	2641	510505	800	138133	3441	648641	53902	5953818	57343	6602459	1449	352930	765	131258	2214	484188	28311	3692853	30525	4177041	4205	368031	9766860										
Incr. . .	377	107124	276	67067	653	174191	2194	434614	2847	608805	293	99528	261	62750	554	162278	40	367741	149	530019	326	144117	133294										
																	Decr.	Increase.															

These Tables show that during the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered this port from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 6,484,441 tons, of which 138,138 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastingways, 5,653,818 tons: total inwards 6,662,459 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 484,188 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 131,238 tons were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastingways, 3,692,833 tons: total outwards 4,177,041 tons. There were registered belonging to this port 4,265 vessels of 308,031 tons, and the Customs' duties collected therein were £9,766,860. Comparing the five years ending the 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase in the Foreign trade inwards of 174,191 tons, of which 67,067 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastingways 134,014 tons: the total increase inwards being 608,805 tons. The increase outwards on the Foreign trade was 162,278 tons, of which 62,760 were Foreign shipping; in the British and Coasting trade there was an increase of 367,741 tons: the total increase outwards being 690,019 tons. There appears to be an increase of 144,117 tons in the registered shipping, which is owing to the same vessels being registered annually, but the actual increase in 1850 was 77 vessels of 8174 tons, or 23.156 per cent, over the registry of 1845. The Customs' duties also increased £136,204, or 3.4 per cent, on the five years.

By the latest official returns, the tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, as well as that of the registered shipping, and the customs' duties collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows:—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tnge.	Customs' Duties Collected. £
	Foreign Trade. Tnge.	Brit. and Coasting Tnge.	Foreign Trade. Tnge.	Brit. and Coasting Tnge.	Foreign Trade. Tnge.	Registered Shipping Tnge.		
1851 .	44,721	37,401	745,333	21,020	36,566	508,781	39,353	874,943
1852 .	59,088	50,497	782,137	36,354	48,440	614,642	41,263	893,383
1853 .	53,724	25,482	789,975	26,566	26,820	607,592	39,814	912,443
1854 .	42,690	38,782	836,838	23,020	38,743	622,919	41,770	932,529

The Foreign trade of this port in 1851 would, therefore, be 139,708 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 1,254,114 tons. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 194,339 tons, and the British and Coasting 1,396,779 tons: being an increase on the former of 54,631 tons, and on the latter 142,665 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 132,592 tons, and the British and Coasting 1,397,567 tons: leaving a decrease on the former of 61,747 tons, and a small increase on the latter of 788 tons as compared with the previous year. In 1854 the Foreign trade again improved: although it did not come up to the tonnage of 1852, it amounted to 143,235 tons, being an increase of 10,643 tons; and the British and Coasting trade was 1,459,757 tons, being an increase of 62,190 tons on the previous year. The registered shipping, which consisted of 444 vessels and 39,353 tons in 1851, amounted to 464 vessels and 41,770 tons in 1854; and the Customs' duties, which had fallen to £874,943 in 1851, produced £932,529 in 1854, leaving an increase on the former of 20 vessels and 2,417 tons, and on the latter of £57,586. The tonnage of the last year, although the greatest that Dublin ever experienced, was exceeded, for the first time in the history of these two ports, by Belfast, by 16,138 tons in its Foreign trade, and 40,984 tons in its British and Coasting trade. Belfast, however, having increased most unprecedentedly in its Foreign, but more particularly in its British and Coasting outward tonnage. For the year ending 5th January, 1851, there were exported from Dublin 7,461 bales of bacon, 41,105 firkins of butter, 40,000 barrels of wheat, 20,744 barrels of barley and bere, 153,191 barrels of oats, 16,482 loads of oatmeal, 10,356 sacks of flour, 103 barrels of malt,

88 hogsheads and 259 casks of hams, 3,300 crates of eggs, 10,084 tierces of beef and pork, 1,701 boxes of candles, 1,750 packs of feathers, 6,781 bundles of hides, 365 casks of lard, 693 bales of leather, 800 puncheons of whiskey, 29,800 hogsheads of porter, 3,648 boxes of linen cloth, 2,100 bales of printed cottons, 3,500 packs of wool, 69,500 oxen, 58,000 pigs, and 80,000 sheep. The imports for the year ending 5th January, 1836, consisted of 340,000 tons of coal, 3,350,000 lbs. of coffee, 52,500 chests of tea, 2,000 bags of pepper, 15,000 hogsheads and 2,200 bags of sugar, 1,150 hogsheads of tobacco, 7,100 pipes and hogsheads and 1,500 cases of wine, 700 puncheons and hogsheads and 1,500 cases of spirits, 11,600 logs of timber, 2,000 great hundreds of deals, and 3,500 great hundreds of staves.

The following are the quantities of tea, coffee, sugar, tobacco, wine, and timber imported, as nearly as can be ascertained, into the port of Dublin for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and comparing the five years then ending with the five preceding years:—

	Tea, lbs.	Coffee, lbs.	Sugar, cwts.	Tobacco, lbs.	Wine, gallons.	Canadian Timber & Deals. Loads.
5 yrs. ending } 5 Jan., 1845 }	15,507,358	3,201,124	899,922	9,982,601	2,055,689	80,598
5 yrs. ending } 5 Jan., 1850 }	18,122,415	3,560,375	1,435,990	7,721,177	1,929,705	80,999
Total for the } 10 years. }	33,659,773	6,761,499	2,335,112	17,703,778	3,985,294	161,597
	2,685,067	359,251	536,868	2,261,424	125,884	401
	Increase.	Increase.	Increase.	Decrease.	Decrease.	Increase

Of these quantities there were only imported direct 5,209,539 lbs. of tea, 334,549 lbs. of coffee, 1,611,353 cwts. of sugar, 1,059 lbs. of tobacco, 3,279,377 gallons of wine, and the whole 161,597 loads of timber and deals. With the exception of tobacco and wine, there was an increase on all the other articles, but on tobacco there was a decrease of 22-1/2 per cent. on the five years. The quantity of tea, coffee, and tobacco, as well as other foreign articles of general consumption received direct, is trifling in comparison to the gross import, which is in a great measure from English ports. Several cargoes of tea, however, direct from China, have been recently imported here, and the trade in sugar and coffee with the Mauritius and Calcutta

is extending. The number of persons employed in collecting the customs in this port in 1849 was 244, at a cost of £15,436 11s. 3d. The amount of postage collected in the city, and of stamps and excise in the district, for the three years ending 5th January, 1853, was—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Dublin City Postage	£46,642	69,020	50,012
Dublin district Stamps	366,203	350,309	360,865
Ditto ditto Excise.....	326,291	350,640	389,636

There are 24 newspapers published in the city; 3 daily, 4 three times, 2 twice, and 15 once a week.

THE DOCKS.—The great Basin and Docks at Ringsend, on the south side of the river, were long esteemed the finest and most extensive in Europe; but those of London, Bristol, and Aberdeen, of late have thrown them into the shade. Their formation cost £112,752, the government having granted £45,000 in 1791 towards their construction and those on the north side of the river. They occupy a space of 35 acres, of which 26 are covered with water 16 feet deep. There are three large sea locks to admit ships from the river; three extensive graving docks and wharfs, with suitable stores 70 to 84 feet wide. The great basin is 3,015 feet long and 360 feet average breadth, capable of containing 300 sail of square-rigged vessels. The upper basin is 2,000 feet long, and is capable of affording proportionate accommodation. On the 23rd April, 1796, the Grand Basin was opened—the Earl Camden, in the *Dorset* yacht, and an immense number of other craft, decorated with flags, were admitted from the Grand Canal under a discharge of twenty-one pieces of cannon, and in the presence of sixty thousand inhabitants assembled to witness this interesting event. Although these docks afforded great accommodation, yet for many purposes they were inconvenient, and others were required, with bonding stores, in more immediate connexion with the custom-house. The St. George's Docks were, therefore, constructed on the north side of the river, which were opened in presence of George IV., in 1821. These spacious docks cover an area of 8 acres, having 16 feet of water, and 3,600 feet of quays. They can accommodate 40,000 tons of shipping, and the stores which surround them are capable of containing 8,000

hogsheads of sugar and tobacco, and 20,000 chests of tea, with cellarage for 12,000 pipes of wine.

DUBLIN BAY AND HARBOUR.—This Bay, which has been represented to have a strong likeness to that of Naples, has no resemblance to it whatever; but it is not therefore the less beautiful. Entering it from the sea about sun-rise, it presents, probably, one of the finest prospects in nature. The land on both sides forms two peninsulas: on the south is the fine range of Wicklow mountains, faintly blue, towering in the distance;—nearer, and along shore, the harbour and town of Kingstown, Killiney Hill, and Dalkey village and island present themselves to view;—on the north, the hill and harbour of Howth;—Lambay and Ireland's Eye form the boundary: while in the deep centre, the metropolis is faintly seen, with its attractive Light-house, robed in white, standing like a watchful sentinel to mark the entrance to the harbour. The channel is entered between two large sand-banks, called the North and South Bulls, from the almost constant roaring of the billows over them:—to deepen it, and otherwise improve the harbour (a work of great magnitude), the south wall was commenced in 1748, which took seven years to complete it. It runs from Ringsend on the south side 17,754 feet into the Bay, being a distance of 7,938 feet to the Pigeon-house, and 9,816 feet from thence to the Light-house, where it terminates. It is formed of large blocks of mountain granite, cemented and strengthened with iron cramps. The breadth of the wall to the Pigeon-house is 40 feet, and from thence to the Light-house, 32 feet at bottom, but narrows about 4 feet at the top, the whole extent being five feet above high-water mark. The basin at the Pigeon-house was the station for the Holyhead packets previous to the formation of either Howth or Kingstown harbours, it is 950 feet long and 450 broad; and the wall or landing-place is 200 feet broad, on which stands a kind of arsenal or magazine, surrounded by heavy cannon, that command the bay and entrance to the harbour. The Light-house was commenced the 21st June, 1762, and finished in 1768. The difficulties to be encountered were very great, but they were overcome by the perseverance and skill of the architect, Mr. Smyth. Huge rocks

were sunk in a kind of chest to the bottom of the sea, which were protected by a buttress of solid masonry 25 feet broad at the base : on this was erected the present beautiful circular structure, three stories high, with a lantern composed of eight windows. The building is of white hewn granite firmly cemented, and gradually tapering to the summit. A stone staircase, with an iron balustrade, winds round the building to the second story, where an iron gallery surrounds the whole. The lantern was supplied with large oil lamps, whose light was powerfully increased by reflecting lenses. The mode of lighting has, of course, been greatly improved since then : and this Light-house has not only proved of the most essential service to the shipping destined for the port of Dublin, but is one of the most beautiful objects in the bay.

KINGSTOWN, formerly Dunleary, is now properly a portion of Dublin Harbour. In 1851 it contained 1,625 houses, and 10,453 inhabitants. It is situated on the south side of the bay, and has obtained its modern name from the circumstance of George IV. having taken his departure from hence on the occasion of his visit to Ireland in 1821. A handsome column was erected on the spot where he last stood on Irish ground, with a suitable inscription to commemorate the event. This extensive harbour was commenced in 1817, and cost in the formation £801,159. The eastern pier, which runs into the bay, is 3,500 feet long, and at the base 200 feet in breadth : it terminates nearly perpendicularly on the side of the harbour, and in an inclined plane towards the sea. The western pier is 4,950 feet in length, having an entrance of 850 feet, the whole forming an area of 250 acres, varying in depth from 15 to 27 feet. A quay, 40 feet wide, runs along the summit, protected by a parapet eight feet high. Outside there is a beacon to mark the entrance to the harbour. Close to the pier head there is twenty-four feet of water at the lowest spring tide, which will admit a frigate, or a merchantman of the largest class, to enter its enclosure, and at two hours tide it will float a first-class ship of war. On the east pier there is a tower exhibiting a revolving light, seen every two minutes. Establishing it as a station for the Liverpool and Dublin Post Office packets was the first step

towards its prosperity. It subsequently became, and still remains, the station for the Dublin and Holyhead packets, and large steamers exclusively employed in the conveyance of passengers. Queen Victoria landed and departed from this harbour on two occasions, in 1849 and 1853.

HILL OF HOWTH, anciently called Ben Heder, or Benadar, (the Mountain of Birds,) is a bold and nearly insulated promontory on the N.E. side of Dublin Bay. Its history, according to Keating, is coeval with the flood. A chieftain of the race of Japhet, named Parthelon, soon after took possession of Ireland. He held sway over the country for thirty years, when he and his whole race were swept away by a plague: the Hill of Howth being the scene of its most awful ravages. For a series of years Howth Harbour was the Dublin station for the Holyhead packets, the construction of which cost half a million, but on the formation of Kingstown Pier the packet-station was established there. On the east pier is a Lighthouse displaying a red light; but the most considerable stands on a small peninsulated rock on the south angle of the hill, displaying a white light, called from its verdure, "the Green Baily," seen from every point of view; it is an object of great interest and beauty. On the left the familiar little island, "Ireland's Eye," presents itself. There are some interesting remains of antiquity at Howth; the Abbey, or Church, in particular, dedicated to the Virgin in the 13th century, by one of the St. Lawrence's, ancestor to the present Lord Howth, who is the twenty-seventh descendant of that noble house in a right line, possessing the title and property acquired by the first baron, Sir Amorey, there never having been an attainder in the family. In this ancient edifice, from time to time, have been laid the mortal remains of the "bold barons," and the aisles are covered with records of their prowess. A singular and romantic legend is attached to the castle. Granua Uilla, or Grace O'Malley, so celebrated in the reign of Elizabeth, returning from a visit to that queen, landed at Howth, and proceeded to the castle. It was the dinner hour, and the gates were shut. Shocked at this dereliction of Irish hospitality, she proceeded to the shore, where the future heir was at nurse, and seizing him, she embarked and sailed to Con-

naught with him, where her own castle stood. After a time, however, she restored the child, but on the express condition that the gates were to be thrown open for the future when the family went to dinner: a practice which is observed to the present day. The bed she occupied when she restored the child is still shown in the castle. George IV. landed here in August, 1821.

Proceeding from Dublin Bay to the northward, the Island of Lambay presents itself, where the iron-built ship, the *John Taylor*, 1,900 tons burthen, bound from Liverpool to Australia, was totally wrecked, with a frightful loss of life, early in 1854. The harbours of Rush, Balbriggan, and Skerries, are on the coast between Drogheda and Dublin, and are adjuncts of the latter port. Rush, some years ago, was a considerable fishing-station, and there are thirty or forty smacks and boats still employed in it. Balbriggan has been for the last half century famed for its hosiery, which obtained a prize-medal at the London Exhibition of 1851. Cotton spinning was early established in this town, and there are now 400 looms employed in weaving cotton goods; muslin embroidering is also carried on to some extent. A Light-house, erected in 1769, at the entrance to the harbour, exhibits a fixed white light, seen ten miles to sea. The Dublin and Drogheda Railway crosses the harbour by means of a viaduct of eleven arches, each thirty feet span, and thirty-five feet in height. Skerries has an extensive roadstead, and good anchorage-ground, but the entrance to the harbour is shallow, admitting vessels only of small burthen. There are thirty or forty smacks, and a great number of yawls employed in fishing here: and upwards of 1,300 females engaged in figuring and embroidering light cotton and muslin. Off Skerries there are four small islands; that nearest the shore is Innispatrick, where Mac Murchard, King of Leinster, founded an extensive abbey in the ninth century. Drogheda is now approached, near the entrance to which there are three light-houses, distinguished as N.E. and W., two of which are movable, according to the changes of the bar. These, and a building called the Maiden Tower, on the south side, to which a legend is attached, designate the entrance to the Boyne.

DROGHEDA.

DROGHEDA, formerly called Tredagh, and originally Imbhar Colpa, is pleasantly situated at the entrance of the river Boyne in 53° 43' N., 6° 22' W. It is 31½ miles N. of Dublin by railway, on the line to Belfast, but by the old coach road it was only 29 statute miles. It is a county of a town, in the province of Leinster, partly in Meath, and partly in Louth; and comprises an area of 5,780 acres, of which 5,308 are in the rural district, and 472 in the town. Its population in 1821, was 18,118 persons; in 1831, 17,365 persons, of which 1,437 were protestants, 265 protestant dissenters, and 15,663 catholics; but of this population there were only 15,183 in the town. In 1841 there were 3,654 houses of all descriptions, inhabited by 8,104 males, and 9,196 females: total 17,300 persons. In 1851, the population was 16,845—males 7,945, females 8,900; and the number of houses was 2,957 inhabited, 355 uninhabited, and 17 building: being a decrease in the population of 455 persons, and in houses of all descriptions 325. The rural part contains forty-five farms, exceeding an acre each. The town has been divided for municipal purposes into three wards—Westgate-Fairgate, and Lawrencegate. The corporation is styled “the mayor, sheriffs, burgesses, and commonalty of the town of Drogheda,” and consists of six aldermen and eighteen town-councillors, elected by the three wards. It returned two members to the Irish, and one to the United Parliament: the present member is James McCann, Esq., a resident merchant of the town: the constituency in 1834 was 601. In 1849 it decreased to 529. In 1851, under the new Act, 13 & 14 Vic., c. 69, it further decreased to 501. In 1853, it again increased, there being 372 rated householders, 110 freemen, and 104 of other qualifications: total 586. The corporate property is composed of 2,032 acres of land, which produced, in 1846, £3,802:

the total income of the borough in 1851 was £3,936 2s. 3½d. : of which £960 4s. 9d. was appropriated to salaries and pensions of municipal officers; £681 16s. 1d. to watching, lighting, and cleansing, &c., the corporation having the charge thereof; £295 4s. 2d. to public works; and £1,967 11s. 7½d. to other purposes, leaving a surplus of £31 5s. 8½d. The present corporate body may thank its stars that so large a portion of the town property of Drogheda is now forthcoming for such purposes, when plunder of similar property of the most wholesale character has been exerted in other boroughs by individuals who had it in trust during the operation of the penal laws, when those whom it concerned most were excluded from corporate privileges. The parishes are St. Peter's, containing 3,523 acres, on the north side of the river, being in the county of Louth, and diocese of Armagh; and St. Mary's, on the south side, containing 1,485 acres, being in Meath county and diocese.

Drogheda is a very ancient maritime town: so ancient, indeed, that it is supposed to have been founded by Heremon, one of the sons of Milesius, who, having arrived from Spain with Heber and his other brothers at Imbhar Sceine, (Bantry Bay,) were subsequently dispersed by a storm, and while Heber regained the Kerry coast, Heremon, after innumerable hardships, put into Drogheda, where he effected a landing, but with the loss of his brothers Aireach and Colpa, the swordsman, who perished in the bay, and from which circumstance the town derived its ancient name. Heber having overthrown the Danaans, who attacked him in Kerry, advanced eastward, and joined Heremon at Drogheda; after which their united forces encountered and totally defeated the Danaans on the plains of Tailton, in the county of Meath. There can be no doubt that an eastern colony of Mithratic, sun-worshippers, had been early established in the neighbourhood of Drogheda. The cavern called New Grange, and the pyramidal obelisk found in its recesses, the narrow passage, and the stone bowls of this grotto, similar to those in the cave of Trophanus, the pagodas of Hindostan, and the pyramids of Egypt, give undeniable evidence that such religious superstition was at an early period practised here. Drogheda suffered much from the ravages of the Danes, and was occasionally occupied by them in the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries. It

must have been then a place of considerable importance, as in 836 the Danish tyrant Turgesius having invaded Ireland with 120 ships, fifty of them were sent against Drogheda to reduce it. Its authentic and interesting history, however, commences with the Anglo-Norman invasion by Strongbow in 1170. It was early subdued, and strongly fortified by the English Pale. It was included in the original grant of Meath, to Hugh de Lacy, but in 1220, when a new grant was made to his son Walter, the town and castle was retained by Henry III., who compensated De Lacy by allowing him £20 a year out of the Exchequer, and the tolls of the town. In 1224, Lucas de Netterville, Archbishop of Armagh, founded on the north side of the town a Dominican monastery, which was dedicated to St. Mary Magdalen, and called the abbey of preaching friars. It was suppressed by Henry VIII. in 1541 ; and so complete was the devastation, that not even the foundation can now be traced. It is surrounded by some of the most humble and miserable dwellings in the locality, seemingly as if the poor, through ages of privation and suffering, still clung to the venerated spot of their ancient benefactors. All that now remains to denote where it once stood is the ruin of the beautiful tower, called the Magdalen steeple, which, in conjunction with the church and spire of St. Peter's, in its immediate vicinity, form a very conspicuous and interesting object in the approach to the town in every direction. In the reign of Edward I., another splendid church and convent was erected by the inhabitants of Drogheda, which was dedicated to St. Mary of Mount Carmel : the name was appropriate, as it was built on the most elevated part of the southern division, and occupied the S.E. angle of the town wall. Richard II., in 1395, held his court here for a short time. On the 10th March, in that year, four of the provincial Irish Princes, O'Neill, O'Donnell, O'Hanlon, and Mac Mahon, who had made their personal submission to this monarch, were knighted by him in the church of the Magdalen, although they assured him the honour was superfluous, as it had been already conferred on them by their fathers when they were only seven years old. Parliaments were frequently held here during the fifteenth century. Two of these were called by the Earl of Ormond, as deputy to Richard, Duke of York, Lord-Lieutenant, by

patent, and one by Lord Gormanston, deputy to the Duke of Bedford: the Acts of the latter were subsequently pronounced illegal, as only four of the shires had been summoned, and Bedford had resigned his letters-patent previous to the issuing of the writs. But the most remarkable was that held by Sir Edward Poynings, in 1494. By it the statutes of Kilkenny, with the exception of that which prohibited the use of the Irish language, were confirmed. Coigne and Livery were expressly forbidden, and a tax of 26s. 8d. was imposed on every 120 acres of land. It was also enacted that all statutes lately made in England should be authorised, approved, and confirmed in Ireland. It is generally supposed, that this statute, which is termed by way of pre-eminence Poynings' law, was the first attempt made to bind Ireland by an English Act of Parliament, but such was not the case, as the same provision was made previously by an Irish Act, 7th of Edward IV., 1467, and Poynings' law merely bound the Irish parliament to adopt and sanction those English laws that were passed since the 8th of Edward IV., which the Irish parliament of 1474 had annulled. Two other arbitrary statutes were also passed by this famous parliament. The chancellor, judges, and other equity and law authorities, whose appointments had been heretofore for life, were only to hold them now during the king's pleasure. Annual parliaments were, no doubt, held about this period, and sometimes more frequently, as appears by an Act passed in the reign of Henry VI., enjoining, that parliaments were not to meet more frequently than once a year. It was now enacted, that as lord-deputies had assumed the power of convening such parliaments, and giving the royal assent to laws not communicated to the sovereign, "that no parliament should be held in future in Ireland, until the particular causes and considerations for such Acts to be passed therein, be first certified by the lord-deputy, and his council, to the king, and approved and affirmed by him in council; and none others should have force and virtue in law; and all deputies were restrained from convening parliaments, or giving the royal assent to laws without the knowledge and approval of the sovereign." The Irish parliament, by this Act, betrayed the trust reposed in it by the nation, and, by assenting to the diminution of its own privileges, allowed the rights

of the people, which were inseparable therefrom, to be invaded by the prerogative of the crown, of which it should have had a just and constitutional apprehension. The mayor of Drogheda, at this period, held rank as a privy counsellor,—he, and the mayor of Dublin, being the only civic magistrates who were so distinguished. The aldermen, and freemen, also enjoyed the same privileges and exemptions from commercial imposts as those of Dublin. In the reign of Henry VI. great dissensions existed between the two sections of the town divided by the Boyne, each claiming the exclusive right of electing the mayor, which were frequently attended with bloodshed; the contending parties, however, were at length reconciled on hearing a sermon preached by one of the friars of the Magdalen, who invited them for the purpose to the Collegiate Church of St. Peter, on the festival of Corpus Christi, which made so strong an impression on them that it led to a petition being forwarded to the king, who granted them a charter, uniting the two divisions into one corporation, to be governed by one mayor, the first appointed being William Symcox. On the 15th February, 1467, Thomas, Earl of Desmond, was beheaded on the North Common, now known as Harman's Ground, by command of John Tiptost, Earl of Worcester, then lord-deputy; his head was sent to Dublin, and spiked on the Castle, and his body interred in the church of the Magdalen, where a stately monument was erected to him, with his effigy in stone, which was removed in 1570, by Sir H. Sydney, lord-deputy, to Christ Church, Dublin. In 1641, the town was attacked by Sir Phelim O'Niell, who was obliged to raise the siege by Sir Henry Tichbourne, who gallantly defended it. This was followed in 1649 by Cromwell's siege and sack, being one of the most sanguinary, as well as atrocious, on record. The place was held for Charles II. by Sir A. Ashton, a brave and experienced officer, who had under him 2,500 foot, and 300 horse. Cromwell laid siege to it with a veteran army of 8,000 foot, 4,000 horse, and a formidable train of artillery; the spot from which his first assault was made is on elevated ground, on the south side of the Boyne, and is still known by the name of Cromwell's fort. It commands the town, and appears to have been recently fortified. The garrison was not dismayed by this overwhelming force; it was

well provisioned, and expected assistance from the Duke of Ormond; twice were the besiegers gallantly repulsed, but on the third occasion it was stormed by Cromwell's whole force, led on by him in person, and although the ground was disputed inch by inch, all opposition became unavailing, and an indiscriminate massacre of the garrison and inhabitants took place. By the express orders of Cromwell himself, 2,000 men, women, and children, the principal part of whom had fled to the churches for protection, were butchered in cold blood. The steeple and church of St. Peter's, where some of the most respectable inhabitants had sheltered themselves, was fired by his special command, and all perished in the flames, save one man, who leaped from the top of the tower, and having broken his leg in the fall, a soldier, less cruel than his comrades, protected him. About 200 officers and men of the garrison had taken refuge in a round tower, near Sunday's Gate, and being without food, on the third day they surrendered, expecting their lives would be spared, but Cromwell himself, in his dispatch, states, "that all the officers, as they submitted, were knocked on the head, and the soldiers, after being decimated, shipped off to Barbadoes." For five successive days did this horrid tragedy continue, and the ruthless and execrable monster who perpetrated it exults in a letter to Lenthall, the speaker of the English parliament, dated the 17th September, 1649, blaspheming the name and attributes of the Deity, by stating that his service required this sacrifice; "that his spirit effected it; and that God alone should have all the glory;" and the parliament, acting on this supposition, ordered a day of solemn thanksgiving, which was most religiously kept by the whole English people on the 1st November following. Ludlow, who was a worthy successor of his diabolical chief, in the Irish government, and who acted as his lieutenant on this occasion, relates, that when the brave governor was murdered, the soldiers, or rather assassins who despatched him, quarrelled about the possession of his artificial leg, which was reported to be of gold, but turned out to be of wood. He, too, seems to take a pleasure in this species of fiendish warfare, and also commits his exploits to paper. He boasts, "that on one occasion, returning from Dundalk, he discovered what he terms a party of the enemy concealed in a

rock, (but who proved to be some unprotected priests, aged men and women, and a few attendants, who sought refuge there from massacres, to which he lent a willing aid.) Being afraid to enter, he determined on suffocating them, and ordered his men to keep up a constant fire within the mouth of the cave for a whole day, when, supposing that those within were smothered, some of his soldiers attempted to enter, but the discharge of a pistol from thence, which killed one of them, showed the contrary. He then discovered, that although a great smoke went in at the entrance, there were other apertures from which it escaped; these he ordered to be stopped, and increased the fumigation. Heavy groans were soon heard, and the fire, after being continued until midnight, was removed, that the place might be cool for exploration in the morning. Some of his men then entered it cap-a-pie, and discovered the man who had acted as sentinel and fired the pistol suffocated on the spot; even in death faithful to his post; they proceeded inwards, and put fifteen defenceless persons to the sword, taking out four or five alive with priests' robes, a crucifix, chalice, &c. The party preserved themselves for two days by laying their heads close to a stream that flowed through the rock;" he adds, "having filled the mouth of the cave with large stones, they quitted it:" but he is silent as to what became of the four or five captives he took from thence; it may, however, be inferred, that they experienced the fate of Aston's officers, "they were also knocked on the head." The late Marshal Bugeaud, so popular with the French for his military operations in Africa, and whose death by cholera was so much deplored by the Parisian Conservatives, must have read Ludlow's memoir in his study of military tactics, for in the progress of the war he had recourse to the same cowardly and barbarous expedient of suffocating in their caves his prostrate enemies. The sword used, or with which Cromwell was armed at this siege, is now in the United Service Museum, London. It bears on the blade two marks of musket-balls, which present the appearance of fractures in a peculiar star-like form. The battle of the Boyne was fought in the immediate neighbourhood of Drogheda. William's cause had been for some time languishing under the Fabian tactics of the Duke of Schomberg, who was indebted to

the imbecility and inactivity of James for maintaining his position in Ulster. William, however, who had landed at Carrickfergus on 14th June, 1689, with large reinforcements of men, money, and every other material of war likely to insure success, put his army, (composed of English and Irish Protestants, Dutch, Danes, Germans, and even two regiments of French Huguenots,) in all amounting to 36,000 men, in motion, and marched rapidly towards Dundalk. The main body of the Irish army had been for some time encamped at Ardee; and on the 16th June, James left Dublin at the head of 6,000 veteran French infantry, and formed a junction with it there—the combined forces now amounted to about 27,000 men. The plan of the campaign laid down by James and his generals was to defend the passes on the Newry Mountains and at Dundalk, and dispute the ground, inch by inch, to the Boyne, without hazarding a general engagement; but at all risks to resist the enemy in passing that river. This was well devised, but the usual delay that attended James's movements occurred, and William's activity frustrated the design. The Irish army, therefore, retired on his approach to Ardee, and took up a strong position on the south side of the Boyne. William marched his army in three divisions, and on the last day of June arrived on the north banks of that river; and here, while reconnoitring the position of the enemy, a cannon-ball killed one of his attendants, and another slightly grazed him in the shoulder. William, whose wound but slightly incommoded him, made preparations for crossing the river at an early hour the following morning, the 1st of July; and, strange as it may appear, every man in his army wore a green sprig or bough, the national colour, which his partisans in aftertimes changed for that of orange; and the green was adopted by their opponents in contradistinction in many a party broil and fray. James's soldiers were distinguished by slips of white paper attached to their hats. William visited his camp by torchlight, and having ascertained that all was ready, retired to await the eventful morrow. James, on the other hand, showed to the last his characteristic weakness and indecision. General Hamilton having advised the propriety of sending five or six thousand men to oppose the passage of the enemy over the Bridge of Slane, James said he would send fifty dragoons

thither, at which the astonished general looked unutterable things, but said nothing. At a council of war held the night before the battle, he recommended that the army should not be committed to a decisive engagement, but retreat towards the capital during the action, the French to lead in this inglorious arrangement, and guard inviolably the miserable person of this shadow of a king. As Hamilton had anticipated, the right wing of William's army, consisting of 10,000 horse and foot, under General Douglas and Count Schomberg, marched towards Slane, having effected the passage of the river after a brief but sharp contest with the few troops that were stationed there. The centre, commanded by Marshal Schomberg, when it was supposed the right wing had effected a passage, entered the Boyne at Oldbridge, and William in person, at the head of the left wing, forded the river between that point and Drogheda. The Boyne, although deep and rapid in winter, is fordable in many places even for pedestrians in summer; but the passage was rendered dangerous by old houses, hedges and ditches, that lined the southern bank, and served the Irish to defend themselves more securely. Notwithstanding, however, the strength of this position, the Dutch blue guards, who were the first to pass over, dislodged them from it with very trifling loss. The main body of the Irish, which had been advantageously posted on the heights some distance from the Boyne, now appeared to dispute the ground; and their cavalry, which was particularly well appointed, charged the enemy with great vigour. One division, under General Hamiltom, forced the Danish horse to recross the river with precipitation and considerable loss. The French Huguenots were also repulsed, and Caillimotte, who commanded them, was slain. Schomberg, who had witnessed these disasters, and who had seen the French fighting without a commander, in the act of leading on some reinforcements to retrieve them, was shot in crossing the water, or as some have it, after reaching the scene of combat, and that the fatal bullet which passed through his head, was fired by his own party. At this period fortune seemed to favour the efforts of the Irish, who fought with undoubted bravery. Notwithstanding that, James, whom they expected to command them, kept out of the engagement, remaining stationary in view, on the

hill of Donore, surrounded by some squadrons of horse, and keeping in reserve 6,000 veteran French infantry, the élite of his army, who did not fire a shot on the occasion; and when his brave Irish troops had repulsed the enemy, and Hamilton's dragoons were hewing down William's cavalry, he was heard to exclaim at intervals, and with great earnestness, "Oh! spare my English subjects!" This pusillanimous and unmeaning conduct disgusted the troops who had him in charge, and soon spread to the rest of the army and dispirited it. Still the national cause was at stake, and the Irish, in their retreat, fought bravely, staying the advance of the English army, and defending with obstinate valour an old mansion called Sheep House, until attacked in flank by William's right wing, under Douglas and Count Schomberg. Sarsfield, at this juncture, besought James to make one effort for his triple crown, and head in person the reserve of French infantry, and such broken columns of Irish as could be rallied, but to this advice he turned a deaf ear, and putting spurs to his horse, he left the scene which he had disgraced by his presence, closely followed by his French auxiliaries. William, who had led on his horse in person, distinguished himself by his vigilance and activity; and although frequently repulsed during the day, ultimately succeeded in securing the victory. The Irish lost in this engagement upwards of 1,000 men, among whom were the Lords Dungan and Carlingford, the Marquis of Hocquincourt, and Sir Neil O'Neill, who subsequently died of his wounds. The English did not lose more than half the number, the disparity arising from the younger Schomberg giving no quarter after hearing that his father was slain, until ordered to desist by William's express command. The death of the Duke of Schomberg, who had reached his eighty-second year, an age apparently too old for campaigning, threw a gloom over this otherwise important victory to the English. Caillimotte, who commanded the French Huguenots, and Dr. Walker, one of the leading Derry enthusiasts, were also slain in this action. An obelisk was erected in 1736 to commemorate this event, and in memory of Schomberg, at Oldbridge, about two miles from Drogheda, on the north side of the Boyne.

Some historians attribute the loss of this battle to the want of

skill and courage in the Irish troops ; and it has furnished them with a pretext for commenting generally on their military career, representing them as " the best soldiers in Europe when abroad, but with having always fought indifferently at home." These conclusions are evidently erroneous, as there is nothing in the soil or climate to deteriorate from the valour and capacity of the Irish soldier ; and he should still have a stronger impetus to action if engaged in the national cause. The best proof of these deductions is to be found in the battles of Dromfluch, Beal-an-atha-buid, and Benburb, and other victories obtained by them in the reigns of Elizabeth and Charles I., over the bravest and most experienced generals, and a succession of the finest armies that England ever raised to fight her battles on Irish ground, unassisted by foreign aid, and, what is still more remarkable, at their very thresholds ; but their commanders were the very opposite of James—they were led on by the O'Niells and O'Donnells, whose judgment and courage were undoubted. The loss of this battle, therefore, must not be attributed to the brave men who fought for James, but to those who did not fight at all, and to the imbecility and natural infirmities of his own character, which had such a baneful influence over everything connected with his cause.

William appeared satisfied with occupying the scene of action, and allowed the French and Irish to retreat to Dublin with little or no molestation. James was one of the first to enter the city with a strong escort, and having reached the castle, he was met by the Duchess of Tyrconnell as he ascended the stairs, who, in reply to her interrogatory as to the result of the battle, the drivelling dastard had the audacity to say, " Your countrymen can run well, madam ;" to which this spirited and noble-minded woman immediately replied, " Not so well as your majesty, for I see you have won the race." Having passed the night there, he proceeded the following morning to Waterford, where he immediately embarked for France, leaving his adherents to carry on the war which his presence had so much impeded, or submit to the victor on the best terms they could obtain. Drogheda, scarcely two miles from the scene of action, was garrisoned with a force of no less than 1,300 men, and well provided with provisions and military stores. The day after the

battle, William summoned the governor, Lord Iveagh, to surrender; who, being informed that the Irish army was irretrievably defeated, and fearing similar results to those to which the place had been doomed by Cromwell, consented conditionally, that the garrison should be allowed to march out with military honours, and join the Irish at Athlone, which being acceded to, William's forces took possession of the place. One of the great errors committed by James, and his generals, was their leaving such strong garrisons cooped up in the different fortified places, particularly in the south and west, thus early in the contest, there being no less than 15,000 men so circumstanced, while his army in the field was inferior in number by eight or nine thousand to that of his opponent. Drogheda was now a favourite residence of William's adherents, and the Boyne water was held by them and their descendants in the greatest veneration. During the infliction of the penal code, catholics were prohibited for a period from residing within the town, notwithstanding which, they multiplied to such a degree, that when the elective franchise was extended to the Irish catholics in 1793, those of Drogheda became an important electoral body, and for years after sustained the liberal cause in many a hard fought contest against the corporation nominees. In 1798 some valuable lives were sacrificed here. John Foster, afterwards Lord Oriel, whose advocacy of free trade in 1780 made him so great a favourite that he rivalled, in popularity for a season, even Grattan himself; he was soon, however, gained over by the British minister, and became one of the most decided opponents to the free principles which then influenced the great majority of the Irish people: in his native county, Louth, he was all-powerful, and he encouraged a system of *espionage* there from which no man's home or fireside was safe, and numerous private informers were in communication with him. One of these, a miscreant of the name of Conlan, destitute of conscientious scruples, indigent and abandoned in his character, for base lucre, now came forward as a public informer, and charged two inhabitants of Dundalk, Anthony Marmion and John Hoey, as being connected with the Society of United Irishmen: they were consequently arrested, and after being some time imprisoned in Dundalk, they were removed to Drogheda, and upon

the uncorroborated testimony of this wretch, were convicted and executed there, although on a subsequent trial in a northern county his testimony against others, whom he represented to have met as delegates, was discredited. Banished from society, like all his class, he was consigned to infamy, and doomed to pine out a guilty existence within the walls of Dublin Castle.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—As early as the reign of Richard II. the woollen trade was extensively established here, but after its suppression by William III. the town directed its attention to the newly-favoured manufacture of the government, linen cloth, and during the whole of the 18th century it enjoyed an extensive and prosperous trade in this article. Its sheetings, in particular, were in high repute in England and America. These were manufactured by a class of small bleachers spread over the county Louth, who purchased the green yarn at fairs and markets, had it first bleached, then woven into cloth, and afterwards brought to Drogheda for sale. They were in general possessed of some land, and united agriculture with manufactures; but they have been long since obliged to give way to the irresistible influence of the power-loom, and the more extensive and expeditious process of bleaching. The spinning of cotton was subsequently introduced, with doubtful success, as it has been in a great measure superseded by flax-spinning. This branch of manufacture has been carried on here with considerable success. There are in all three flax, one tow, and one cotton spinning mills, all driven by steam, and employing about 1,500 of the population, principally females, who are paid from 2s. 6d. to 6s. a week. Messrs. Chadwick and Gradwell's mill, which is situated on the south side of the river, and is called the St. Mary's, is the most extensive, and is said to have cost £50,000. The West-Gate mill is the property of Messrs. John and George Gradwell, a Preston firm, and the Mell flax and tow mills belong to Messrs. Ennis, Richardson & Co., but the latter have not been working since the war commenced. The cotton mill is worked by Messrs. R. Gray & Co., who employ about 200 hands. The calender business is carried on extensively by Mr. William Owens, who employs a great number of weavers, and has a considerable export for his manufac-

ture. Messrs. T. Grendon & Co.'s foundry and iron works are very extensive, employing upwards of 300 operative mechanics and labourers: the former are paid from 28s. to 48s., and the latter from 8s. to 16s. a week. They construct locomotives and every other description of machinery. The Lattice Bridge, over the Royal Canal, on the Dublin and Drogheda Railway, was made by them, and they are now executing extensive orders in steam-boat machinery for Liverpool, Glasgow, &c. There is an extensive distillery worked by Messrs. Jameson & Co.; also two breweries in full operation. Mr. W. Cairnes brews 500 barrels of ale and porter weekly, and his ale is not only celebrated in England and Ireland, but also in the East and West Indies. Mr. Patrick Casey, the present mayor, is doing a good business, and brews between 200 and 300 barrels weekly. The other manufactures are—seven corn and flour mills, four salt works, four soaperies, eight tan yards, and one rope-walk. The most extensive of these is Messrs. Smith and Smythe's steam-mill, which, with the adjoining stores, cost £20,000. The machinery is impelled by an engine of fifty-horse power, and is capable of grinding 40,000 barrels of wheat and 60,000 barrels of oats. There is steam-power exerted to the extent of 180 horses on bread stuffs; 334 on flax and cotton; 30 in the two breweries; and 30 in Messrs. Grendon's foundry: total steam power exerted on machinery in Drogheda equal to 574 horses.

Previous to the famine of 1847, the foreign commerce of Drogheda was very inconsiderable, being confined to a few cargoes of Baltic and American timber and deals annually. Since then, however, and for the last four years in particular, there has been a considerable trade in the import of foreign wheat, but more particularly in Indian Corn from the Black Sea. According to returns furnished by the Railway Commissioners in 1835, its exports, which consisted of linen, grain, flour, meal, ale, butter, eggs, cattle, &c., amounted to £766,027; and its imports of tea, sugar, timber, coal, rock-salt, iron, bark, slates, herrings, &c., was £259,854. There is now a considerable portion of the linen yarn spun in Drogheda shipped *via* Liverpool to Hull, and from thence to Hamburg, for account of German houses. The trade of the port will be best shown by the following Tables:—

DROGHEDA.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of this Port, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending with the five preceding years.

Years ending January 1st.	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Shipping.		Customs' Duties Collected.								
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					TOTAL INWARDS.					Foreign Trade.								British and Coasting Trade.					TOTAL OUTWARDS.		
	British.		Foreign.			Total.	British and Coasting Trade.		TOTAL INWARDS.			British.		Foreign.			Total.	British and Coasting Trade.		TOTAL OUTWARDS.											
	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.		Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.		Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.									
1831..	10	1940	2	293	12	2233	694	64260	706	66493	1	171	1	139	2	310	544	83797	546	84107	43	4710	43	7953							
1842..	7	1203	2	324	9	1527	607	55079	616	56906	1	190	2	324	3	614	507	74519	610	75033	45	4850	45	8389							
1843..	6	1019	1	65	7	1084	682	55340	589	56424	4	448	4	448	516	75511	520	76959	46	4850	46	8117							
1844..	12	2128	1	170	13	2298	695	65431	708	67729	3	750	3	750	660	84263	663	85013	46	4876	46	7036							
1845..	5	788	2	459	7	1247	737	67762	744	69009	2	357	2	357	612	82948	614	83305	45	4705	45	9851							
	40	7078	8	1311	48	8389	3315	307872	3363	316261	11	1916	3	463	14	2379	2839	410038	2853	403417	224	23991	224	41046							
1846..	14	2670	2	328	16	2998	770	81254	786	84252	4	886	4	886	673	106181	677	107067	46	5111	46	11104							
1847..	12	2424	3	642	15	3066	939	121848	954	124914	6	1428	2	248	8	1676	693	136296	701	137971	51	6293	51	16733							
1848..	16	2883	9	1436	25	4319	956	143955	981	148274	10	1782	8	1236	18	3018	690	128627	608	131645	51	6546	51	16444							
1849..	13	2440	1	93	14	2533	960	142194	974	144727	6	1490	6	1490	600	130642	606	132132	52	6448	52	17515							
1850..	17	2557	7	1063	24	3620	853	138849	877	142469	5	1223	5	1223	560	136110	565	137333	54	7035	54	15428							
1845 to '50	72	12974	22	3562	94	16536	4478	628100	4572	644636	31	6809	10	1484	41	8293	3116	637855	3157	646148	254	31423	254	77224							
1841 to '45	40	7078	8	1311	48	8389	3315	307872	3363	316261	11	1916	3	463	14	2379	2839	401038	2853	403417	224	23991	224	41046							
1841 to '50	112	20052	30	4873	142	24925	7793	935972	7935	960897	42	8725	13	1947	55	10672	5955	1038893	6010	1049565	478	65414	478	118270							
Incr...	32	5896	14	2251	46	8147	1163	320228	1209	328375	20	4893	7	1021	27	5914	277	236817	304	242731	30	7432	30	36178							

These Tables show, that during the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered this port from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 24,925 tons, of which 14,783 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 986,972 tons: total Inwards being 990,897 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 10,672 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 1,947 tons were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastways 1,088,888 tons: the total amount Outwards being 1,949,505 tons. There were registered belonging to the port 478 vessels of 65,414 tons, and the Customs' duties collected therein was £118,970. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade Inwards of 8,147 tons, of which 2,251 tons were Foreign shipping; and on the trade with Great Britain and Coastways 820,228 tons: total increase Inwards being 828,375 tons. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 5,914 tons, of which 1,021 tons were Foreign shipping; and on the British and Coasting trade 230,817 tons: total increase Outwards 242,731 tons. The Foreign trade had therefore increased 132 1/2 per cent., and the British and Coasting 78 1/2 per cent., being the greatest increase on that branch of trade of any port in the kingdom. There appears to be an increase of 7,492 tons on the registered shipping, which is owing to the same vessels being registered annually, but the actual increase was 9 vessels of 2,340 tons, or 49 1/2 per cent. on the shipping of 1845; and the Customs' duties also increased £50,017, or 88 1/2 per cent. on the five years.

The tonnage entering inwards, and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows :—

Years.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tons.	Customs' Duties Collected. £
	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Tons.	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Tons.	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Tons.		
1851 ..	2,164	1,180	124,279 ..	226	155	108,500 ..	7,000	12,234
1852 ..	5,146	2,302	134,687 ..	714	944	115,638 ..	6,499	11,676
1853 ..	6,409	1,660	131,010 ..	517	418	118,737 ..	6,439	18,935
1854 ..	4,417	3,028	122,702 ..	507	684	113,899 ..	7,146	16,744

The trade of this port, therefore, for the year ending 5th January, 1851 was, Foreign 3725 tons, and British and Coasting 232,779 tons. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 9,106 tons, and the British and Coasting 250,325 tons, leaving an increase on the former year of 5,381 tons of Foreign, and 17,546 tons of British and Coasting shipping. In 1853, the Foreign trade was 9,004 tons, being a small decrease of 102 tons, and on the British and Coasting trade 578 tons. In 1854, the Foreign trade was 8,646 tons, and the British and Coasting 236,601 tons; there would, therefore, be a decrease in the former of 358 tons, and in the latter of 13,146 tons on the previous year. Notwithstanding this decrease, there is every reason to believe that the trade of this port is in a healthy and prosperous state. In the registered shipping is included five splendid steam vessels measuring 1,787 net tons, and including their engine rooms must amount to near 3,000 tons. They are employed in the Liverpool trade, and are severally owned by Messrs. T. Carty, William Cairnes, Sir George Smith, and the Drogheda Steam Packet Company; but they are all under the excellent management of Mr. P. Ternan, and have but one interest: they produce large remunerative profits, and their shares, originally of £20 each, are at a handsome premium, being now worth £32 in the market. Previous to 1830 vessels drawing more than twelve feet of water could not pass the bar even at spring tides; but from recent improvements, and particularly the operations of a dredging machine of sixteen-horse power, there is now thirteen feet of water on it at the lowest neap tide. An ingenious barrier of wicker net work has been constructed

under the superintendence of Mr. P. Donor, harbour engineer, which has kept the channel free of the sand raised by the dredging machine, and when the works in progress are completed in the ensuing spring, vessels drawing from sixteen to seventeen feet will have water in ordinary spring tides, not only over the bar but up to the Quays, which display a fine line of wharfage, 720 yards on the north, and 107 yards on the south side of the river. The preservation and improvement of the port and harbour are under commissioners constituted by an Act 5th of Vict., and who have discharged the trust reposed in them with great ability and economy: much has been done here for a moderate sum. They keep their account with the Belfast Banking Company, which charges them 5 per cent. on its advances, and there was due to it on the 31st December, 1853, £4,831 10s. The total debt due by the Harbour on the 6th April, 1854, was £5,219 11s. 4d. The harbour dues for the year ending 31st December, 1853, amounted to £3,690 19s. 6d., derived from a tonnage duty of 6d. per ton on vessels with cargo inwards and outwards; those in ballast pay no duty: there was also incidentally received £55 9s. 9d.: total receipts £3,746 9s. 3d., and the expenditure was £3,603 11s. 1d. Balance in favour of the port £142 18s. 2d. There is a small ship-building yard and patent slip here, fifty-three pilots belonging to the port, and a steam-tug for towing vessels into and out of the harbour. There is also an extensive gas works, which lights the town, harbour, and factories. The amount of postage collected in the town, and of stamps and excise in the district, for the three years ending 5th January, 1853, was—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
	£	£	£
The Postage of Drogheda	810	958	931
Stamps, including Meath	2,344	2,464	2,600
Excise of the District	179,057	170,710	161,618

The Bank of Ireland, the Hibernian, Belfast Banking Company, and Provincial Banks of Ireland, have branches established here. The principal streets are West Street, Fair Street, and Shop Street; but, with the exception of the extensive improvements in the harbour and on the quays, the town has changed its appearance but little for the last half century.

The Public Buildings are—The Tholsel, where the assizes, quarter sessions, and mayor's court are held; the Linen Hall, Corn Market, Custom House, Infirmary, Gaol, Barracks, Savings' Bank, News Room, and the Union Workhouse.

The Houses of Religious Worship are—St. Peter's Church, rebuilt in 1753; St. Mary's Church, a modern edifice erected in 1811; the Church of St. Mark, which is a chapel of ease to St. Peter's, towards the erection of which the corporation in 1829 contributed £300. The Catholic Church of St. Peter, a handsome and commodious edifice erected at an expense of £12,000, raised by subscription: the parish in which it is situated is the benefice of the Catholic primate and archbishop of Armagh. The Church of St. Mary, towards the erection of which the late Michael Duff contributed £4,000. This parish is an Union, and there is another church or chapel at Mornington. There are three Franciscan, Augustinian, and Dominican convents; two nunneries, one dedicated to the Blessed Virgin, the other to St. Dominic, called the Sienna Convent, which has a department for the education of young ladies. Drogheda was celebrated for the number and importance of its ancient religious establishments: the ruins of the Augustinian Priory, called the Old Abbey, from the supposition that it was founded by St. Patrick, are still to be seen; it was suppressed by Henry VIII., and granted to the mayor and corporation. The St. Mary's Hospital, founded by Ursus de Swemele, suppressed and granted to the mayor at a yearly rent of £1 14s. 4d. The priory of St. Lawrence shared the same fate. A priory of Hospitallers, endowed by Walter de Lacy, suppressed, and granted by Edward VI. to James Seagrave, at the yearly rent of 10s. 10d. A Franciscan Friary, founded in 1300, suppressed and granted by Henry VIII. to Gerald Aylmer, at the yearly rent of 3s. 6d. A priory of regular Canons—Houses dedicated to St. John, St. Beñnet, and St. James, were all suppressed, and their revenues granted to the corporation or some minion of the Crown. The present Presbyterian church was erected in 1827, at a cost of £2,000, towards which the corporation gave £300. The Wesleyan Methodists have also a house of worship here.

The Educational Institutions are—the National Schools; St. Peter's Parochial School, one of Erasmus Smith's, to which there is a grant of £280 per annum; a School, superintended by the nuns of the Presentation Convent; one large private and three Sunday Schools, giving education to more than one-third of the juvenile population.

The Union Workhouse accommodates 940 inmates, and was opened 16th December, 1841: the Union contains 98,848 acres, and a population of 52,251 persons, in 12 electoral divisions, represented by 25 elected and 25 ex-officio guardians, who meet every Thursday: the property valued under the 6th and 7th William IV. c. 82, amounted to £108,761, and the expenditure in 1852 was £3,959 7s. 6½d., and the rate in aid levied in 1851-2 was £1,012 16s. 4d. The terminus of the Dublin and Drogheda Railway is on the south side of town, and its station is also used by the Dublin and Belfast Junction Railway which joins it here as well as the Branch to Navan and Kells. There are two weekly newspapers—The Argus, and Conservative Journal, published on Saturdays. The market is held on Saturdays, and there are also eight fairs held annually.


Proceeding down the Boyne, the magnificent Viaduct, already described as forming part of the Dublin and Belfast Junction Railway, is passed; and proceeding northward, and doubling a bold promontory, the spacious Bay of Dundalk is entered, on the south side of which is Clogherhead, close in with which there is deep water at all times of tide. On the north side of the head is a small natural cove or dock, to which a passage for small craft has been cut through the beach. A moderate sum expended on a pier, and in otherwise improving the great natural advantages that present themselves here, would make this a first-rate safety harbour for vessels navigating the Irish Sea, which is so much required between Kingstown harbour and the lough of Belfast. In proof of which, in gales of wind fishing-smacks run from all quarters to it, as it affords them shelter from every wind except the north-east.

DUNDALK.

DUNDALK, which in Ossian's poems is called Dundalgan, is situated on Castletown River, on the east coast of Ireland, being the chief town of the county Louth, formerly described as part of Ulster, but is now in Leinster, and is $53^{\circ} 59' N.$, and $6^{\circ} 25' W.$ Previous to the formation of the Dublin and Belfast Junction Railway, it was by the old coach road 40 Irish miles distant from either place ; but by rail it is $54\frac{1}{2}$ statute miles from Dublin, $58\frac{1}{2}$ from Belfast, *via* Portadown, and about thirty miles from the ancient city of Armagh. The parish of Dundalk comprises 6,202 statute acres ; but the town stands on an area of 450 acres. The population in 1841 consisted of 10,782 persons, inhabiting 1,798 houses ; and in 1851, of 9,995 persons, inhabiting 1,679 houses, being a decrease of 119 houses, and 787 persons ; but in the workhouse of the Dundalk Union, which is just without the borough, there were, in 1851, 988 inmates, a great portion of whom came from the town. The house should have been built within the borough, or the boundaries of the borough should be so extended as, even now, to take it in.

Dundalk is a seaport town of great antiquity ; and ages before the Danish, or Anglo-Norman invasion, was celebrated in Irish history. It was the favoured resort of the knights of the red-branch, an order created by King Kimboath, who erected the splendid palace of Emania, near Armagh, which continued for so many ages the regal residence of the kings of Ulster. Attached to it was the extensive quarters of the *Craobh-ruadh*, and many regal and warlike relics of antiquity have been picked up, even to the present day, on the Rath, on which these edifices stood. The deeds of these martial knights were triumphantly sung and commemorated by the bards and senachies in the seven years' war between Connaught and Ulster ; and in which the young Cuchullen,

in whom they took especial delight, particularly distinguished himself with Conal Cearnach, and other heroes of this order. The origin of this famous septennial war, which occurred in the first century of our era, arose from an incursion of the troops of Miebhe, Queen of Connaught, into the county of Louth, in which they possessed themselves of innumerable herds of cattle collected at Cuailgne, in that county, which gave the name of Tain-bo-Cuailgne to the war. This spoliation roused the ire of the knights of the red-branch, who retaliated, and the queen marched an army to attack them, commanded by Feargus, the dethroned King of Ulster. The queen herself accompanied it in all the panoply of regal state. The names and deeds of the heroes on either side, and all the circumstances of this memorable contest, are detailed in the songs and romances of the Irish bards, from which James Macpherson deduced his poems of Ossian; this contest, in particular, forming the ground-work of his poem of Fingal and Temora, in which Swaran is substituted for Feargus, and Ossian for Oisín, a bard and hero who did not flourish until the third century, and which, notwithstanding the sublimity of the composition, does not save it from being recognized and pronounced a gross and impudent forgery. Had Macpherson, when indulging his muse in a poetical flight of fancy, selected his time some five or six centuries earlier, when Irish history was involved in some obscurity and doubt, he might have imposed on the credulity of the public, and have convinced his readers of the reality of his heroes, as he has unquestionably delighted them with what may be in some degree considered a translation of these sublime poetical effusions of the Irish bards. Notwithstanding the bravery of the *Craobh-ruadh*, the queen's forces devastated the province of Ulster; without, however, being able to restore Feargus to the sovereignty, from which he had been ejected by Connor, and returned to Connaught with an immense booty. Although the head quarters of the knights of the red-branch were at Emania, their great captain, Cuchullen, spent much of his time at Dundalgen, his native place, which, with the county of Louth, composed a portion of his princely territory, and where tradition even at this remote period fondly indulges in the recital of the extraordinary feats of arms performed by this ancient Irish hero,



which Dundalk has the proud prerogative of claiming as her own. The Queen of Connaught, still intent on restoring Feargus, who had gained her affections, to the throne of Ulster, took advantage of the absence of Conal Cearnach, who with many of the knights of the red-branch, and the flower of the youth of Ulster, were on a foreign expedition to assist the Picts, or Gauls, against the Romans, entered into a coalition with Lugha, chief of the Munster, and Mac Nead, head of the *Clana-Boisghne*, or Leinster knights, for that purpose. A large army was assembled under the command of Lugha, who forthwith marched into Ulster. Connor raised what troops the extreme urgency of the time would admit, and sent an express to Cuchullen, then at Dundalgen, to take the command, but with strict orders not to engage the enemy, if possible, until the arrival of Conal, whose return was daily expected. For six days did Cuchullen resist his incitement to battle, and remained shut up in his camp; but on the seventh, unable to restrain his natural courage and impetuosity, he resolved to wait no longer. Summoning the chiefs under his command to a council of war, and finding them averse to engaging the Connaught army at such fearful odds, he vehemently exclaimed, "Since the days that arms were first placed in my hands, I have not declined a battle, nor shall I now:" and marshalling his forces, he rashly attacked the enemy with inferior numbers, and fell by the sword of Lugha, whose father experienced a similar fate from the hands of Cuchullen in a previous engagement. Cuchullen, who had fought in a splendid war chariot, and performed feats of valour, finding himself mortally wounded, directed his charioteer to convey him to a *curruig*, (a large stone placed on one end,) and leave his body in a standing position against it, his sword in his right hand, his shield upraised, and his two spears by his left side. Thus perished the pride of Irish chivalry, in the prime of life; and his followers, disheartened by his fall, and overpowered by numbers, fled from the field and sustained a total defeat. The plain on which this sanguinary battle was fought was called *Muirtheimhne*, in the neighbourhood of Dundalk, in the county Louth, and the relation of it is called in the Irish *Bruislioch-more-Muirtheimhne*, or the great defeat at *Muirtheimhne*. Dundalk, from its geographical

position and open bay, so easy of access, and so well calculated for favouring a sudden descent and precipitate retreat, was early invaded by the Danes. In 839 a formidable Danish fleet infested the coast of Ulster, and landed a large body of troops at this port. After laying waste the country in their march to Armagh, that city, from its rich shrines, being always marked for pillage, was now taken by assault, and all its sumptuous churches, colleges, and public edifices burnt to the ground. The only important naval engagement recorded in Irish history took place in the Bay of Dundalk early in the tenth century. It must strike the humblest comprehension with astonishment, that the Irish, although possessed of an island abounding with forests of the finest oak, and other suitable material for ship-building; enjoying also the most splendid rivers, loughs, and harbours, so admirably adapted to the accommodation of extensive fleets, should, notwithstanding, for so many centuries, allow the piratical ravages of the Danes, and subsequently the more dangerous subversion of their independence by the Anglo-Normans, without an effort to build a navy that could cope with these invaders on that element from which they could alone expect danger from a foreign foe. Had they turned their attention to the creation and maintenance of an efficient navy, neither the Danes nor Anglo-Normans could have prevailed against them, and their integrity as an independent nation might have been preserved even to the present day. The circumstances that led to this memorable sea-fight originated in Sitrick, Prince of Denmark, descended, both by birth and disposition, from the tyrant Turgesius, having arrived in Ireland with large reinforcements to the Danes from Norway. He reduced the city of Dublin—overthrew the armies of Niall in several engagements, in one of which the monarch himself was slain. Encouraged by these successes, he made several incursions into the province of Munster, where Ceallachan had been recently proclaimed king; in one of these a battle occurred, in which Sitrick was totally defeated, and his wife and sister made prisoners and conveyed to Waterford, where they were treated with that respect and politeness due to their rank and sex, for the observance of which the Irish are proverbial. They were soon after set at liberty; but during their short stay at

Ceallachan's court, the charms of the Danish princess made a deep impression on his heart, whilst his manly form and personal accomplishments had a similar effect on that of Sitrick's wife. With their enlargement, the Danes evacuated the kingdom of Munster, and Sitrick retired to Dublin, where he meditated the most perfidious and malignant designs against the life of Ceallachan, to whom he chiefly attributed his recent defeats. Being informed of his attachment to his sister, he devised a plan to assassinate him in the most cowardly and atrocious manner, to which the pitiful Irish monarch Donogh, who, being offended at the Munster king refusing to pay him tribute, and too weak to enforce it, gave his willing and guilty concurrence. Sitrick despatched a messenger to Ceallachan, offering him his sister in marriage, and proposing a treaty defensive and offensive between them. This proposal rekindled the love that Ceallachan entertained for the lady, and without reflecting on the dishonour of marrying into the family of the inveterate enemy and invader of his country, and the enormity of acquiescing in his settlement therein, he was only guided by his passion, and deemed the alliance as likely to lead to the peace and prosperity of his own dominions. He therefore sent back the messenger to say, that he accepted the proffered treaty, and would be soon at Sitrick's court to ratify it, and the marriage with his sister. Preparations on a grand and expensive scale were made, and, independent of a princely equipage and retinue, the choicest troops of the province were ordered to attend him and conduct the queen to his palace, with all the pomp and magnificence suitable to the occasion. Kennedy, who had disinterestedly waived his right to the crown, and lived in strict friendship with Ceallachan, represented the impropriety of taking the flower of the troops, as well as his guards, for the sake of empty parade, and leaving the province open to any invader. Neither of them, however, had any suspicion of Sitrick's treachery, but had some apprehension that Donogh might invade the province, and exact by force the tribute withheld. It was therefore arranged, that Ceallachan should only take a few of his body-guards, and some of the young nobility, and among others Dunchan, the son of Kennedy, was appointed to attend him, while he took charge of the province in the king's absence.

Sitrick's wife, who, by feigning dislike to the King of Munster, as well as to the proposed alliance, had ascertained her husband's intention of sacrificing him and his followers to the manes of those renowned Danes whom he had slain in battle. Struck with horror at his cowardly purpose, she had sufficient presence of mind to appear delighted with it. But as soon as she found that Ceallachan was approaching the environs of Dublin, she left the palace in disguise, and awaited his arrival at a point by which he had to pass, and communicated the vile intentions of her husband towards him, advising him to retrace his steps precipitately. Love may have influenced the heroic conduct of this noble lady, and it must be admitted that it is a powerful incentive with her sex particularly; but as she was descended from a distinguished Irish family, and had been treated by Ceallachan with the greatest respect and attention when a captive in his hands, gratitude and humanity would have naturally dictated it. Ceallachan, who immediately resolved on following her advice, found his retreat impeded by two divisions of Danish troops, who remained in ambush until he had entered Sitrick's territory. They now attacked his body-guard with great violence, who retaliated with such effect, that, had not the Danes been reinforced several times in the course of the engagement, from the city, he must have effected his retreat; but overpowered by numbers, he and his friend Dunchan were taken prisoners, and led in triumph to Dublin. Sitrick would have been better pleased had they been among the slain, but as prisoners of war he had no feasible pretext for putting them to death. He was bound by the laws of honour to reciprocate, in some degree, the courtesy shown his wife and sister by Ceallachan in their captivity, and he feared that any flagrant violation of these laws would be resented by the whole Irish nation, and retaliated with a vengeance on himself and his people. He, therefore, offered them such terms of ransom as he knew would be indignantly rejected:—these were, to deliver into his hands the cities of Cork, Cashel, Limerick, and Waterford, with an *ærick* or fine for every Dane that fell in the late invasion of Munster. Ceallachan suppressed his indignation at these exorbitant terms, and asked permission to send one of his domestics who had escaped the recent carnage to know if their liber-

ties could be purchased on such terms ; but he privately instructed him to assure Kennedy that, whatever fate awaited him and Dunchan, these proposals should be rejected. He requested that Donough, his general, might be dispatched with whatever troops could be got together on the emergency, and march to Armagh, where they expected to be removed, and if the conditions were not complied with, to be shipped on board the Danish fleet, then lying in the harbour of Dundalk, and thence transported to Norway ; and, lest the army should not arrive at Armagh in time to rescue them, that all the ships in the Munster ports should proceed to Dundalk Bay, to intercept them there. Kennedy, who had previously received information of Sitrick's treachery, had anticipated the messenger, in making the necessary preparations to rescue the royal prisoners. Nothing could exceed the indignation and resentment of the people of Munster when the terms of the ransom were made public. An army of 6,000 Dalgais and Eugenians was promptly assembled under Donough and Kennedy's three brothers, who were joined by other divisions on their march to Connaught ; where, being obliged to levy contributions of provisions and forage, the prince of that province, who should have aided them against the common enemy, threw every impediment in their way, and actually sent intelligence of their approach to the Danes at Armagh. While the army was proceeding to its destination by land, the order for preparing a naval armament to co-operate with it by sea was obeyed with an alacrity and promptitude that was truly surprising, considering how little accustomed the Irish were to naval operations. Sixty ships, such as were then used in war, were soon equipped, armed and well manned, and the command conferred on Failbhe Fionn, Prince of Desmond, who set sail from the Munster ports with all expedition for Dundalk. Sitrick, who in the meantime had removed with the royal captives from Dublin to Armagh, was anxiously waiting Kennedy's answer to the proposed terms of ransom : he no sooner heard that the army of Munster was approaching, than he conveyed his prisoners rapidly to Dundalk, ordering the Danish earls, with the main body of his army, to give battle to Donough, who almost immediately after appeared before Armagh, and attacked the Danes with such impetuosity that they were soon

overthrown and the city stormed ; when, finding that the king and Dunchan had been removed, and in retaliation for Sitrick's perfidy, no quarter was given, and few escaped the carnage that ensued. The army then, by forced marches, reached Dundalk, where it was thrown into the greatest sorrow and consternation on finding that Sitrick and his guards had embarked, taking the royal prisoners with them, and that the Danish fleet lay proudly out of reach, at anchor, in the bay. While all crowded to the shore, deploring an event that then appeared irremediable, they descried a number of vessels under full sail entering the bay, and steering directly to where the Danes were anchored. A moment of breathless anxiety ensued, and then a shout of joy arose along the shore. It was the gallant fleet of Munster ! The Danes were surprised and alarmed at the sight of an unexpected enemy on their own element, for when they embarked they considered themselves as much out of the reach of the Irish as if they had landed on the coast of Norway. As soon as Sitrick had recovered from his astonishment, he ordered Ceallachan and Dunchan to be ignobly tied to the mast of his ship. The Irish admiral, filled with indignation at this sight, soon had his vessel alongside that of the Dane, and overthrowing all that opposed him, sword in hand, reached the captive monarch, and cut the cords that bound him and Dunchan. Hurrying them on board his own ship, he returned, and continued the contest on his opponent's deck, supported by a few but gallant followers, where they performed feats of valour : but being surrounded by the Danish guards, they were overpowered by numbers, and the valiant Failbhe, fighting to the last, fell in the unequal combat covered with wounds. Sitrick, in order to intimidate the Irish, had his head cut off and exposed to view in a conspicuous part of his ship. It had, however, a contrary effect, for Fingal, the second in command, determined on revenging the death, and the indignities perpetrated on the remains of his brave admiral, renewed the combat with increased fury. Calling on his men to follow him, he boarded Sitrick's ship, when another sanguinary conflict ensued ; but the vast naval superiority of the Danes, and their most distinguished and experienced captains being present in the fight, left the brave Irish but little hopes of success. In this

emergency, Fingal, who was a powerful man, formed a resolution which, for heroism and patriotism, has probably no parallel in history. Singling Sitrick out, he rushed suddenly upon him, grasped him in his arms, and leaped with him into the sea, where both perished. Fired by the example, two other Irish chieftains seized on Tor and Magnus, brothers to Sitrick, and perished in the same way. The Danes, appalled by such heroism, and the loss of their commanders, gave way on every side, and few escaped the carnage to tell the tale in Scandinavia. Great was the joy on board the Irish fleet as the last dark ship of these marauding invaders sunk in the eddying vortex of the briny water of Dundalgen Bay. Great were the rejoicings that night in the old town itself, and hearty the gratulations with which the victors were saluted by their brethern in arms, and the whole population of the district as they reached the shore. Nor were Ceallachan and Dunchan less delighted, who had so much more reason to be thankful for their providential deliverance from death or slavery. Thanksgivings were offered up in all the churches and other religious establishments in the town and neighbourhood; and there was but one alloy to the general exultation—regret for the loss of the brave men, to whose courage and patriotism they were indebted for these glorious results. The King of Leinster, envious of the glory and fame that Ceallachan and the Momonians had acquired by these victories, actually made preparations to obstruct their return to Munster; but his subjects discountenanced them, and his own apprehensions of their courage and prowess, deterred him from the attempt. This was the third instance of the bad faith, want of unanimity, and total disregard of consequences, and love of country, that those petty Irish kings had manifested during the brief war between the King of Munster and the Danes. Donogh, the chief monarch, as has been already shown, encouraged Sitrick in his base and infamous designs against Ceallachan. The King of Connaught, if he dared, would have opposed the march of the Momonians, but fearing to encounter them, he secretly informed the Danes of their approach to Armagh; and now the King of Leinster could with difficulty be restrained from attacking an army which had rendered the nation such essential service, by the destruction of the common enemy. No

wonder, then, with such disunion, feuds and jealousy existing among these provincial kings, who had been so long the curse of Ireland, that it should have fallen an easy prey to the Anglo-Normans; whereas, had it been governed by a single monarch, or a republic, it would have been impossible to effect its conquest, or hold it long in subjection.

Dundalk was taken possession of almost immediately after Strongbow's invasion of Ireland by John De Courcy, the bravest and most formidable of all the Anglo-Norman knights in his crusade against Ulster. Notwithstanding his immense strength and prowess, his retention of this town, from the warlike and independent character of the inhabitants, was attended with considerable difficulty; and being defeated in a battle which took place in the neighbourhood, he evacuated it, and tried his fortune with more success in reducing Down. Bertram De Verdon, however, soon after obtained a grant of it from Henry II., and had it walled round and strongly fortified, it being the northern barrier town of the pale, and the key to the province of Ulster. He also endowed an Augustinian priory, which, with its revenues, were subsequently seized on by Henry VIII., as well as those of a monastery of grey friars, founded by John De Verdon, on the east side of the town, some portion of which was standing in 1770, and is probably that which is now called Seatown Castle; but if so, the east window, which was then described by Ware as large, and composed of beautiful stained glass, is no longer to be seen. From this ancient tower there is a splendid view of the bay, and far out to sea, and when a gale sets in from the east, or south-east, the billows run mountains high, and the scene is wildly grand and picturesque. A large vessel riding out a gale in this bay, where there is good anchorage, composed of stiff blue clay, renders the scene still more interesting and imposing. The monks who once inhabited this spot were celebrated for their hospitality to strangers in distress and shipwrecked mariners, in which their contiguity to the sea often gave them the opportunity of indulging. During the reigns of John, Henry III., and Edward I., Dundalk was strongly garrisoned, and became one of the most important towns of the pale. The country to the south and west, being composed of lands pro-

bably the most fertile in Ireland, the ruins of numerous castles, still discernible throughout the county Louth, show the powerful exertions the first Anglo-Norman invaders must have made to retain possession of it. The town itself must have been a place of considerable strength, as it was generally here that the forces of the pale, when defeated in the field, took refuge : and it was here, that, up to the reign of Edward II., their Irish enemies, although previously flushed with success, were invariably repulsed. It was destined now, however, for a season, to change masters, and become the scene of an extraordinary event, which was calculated, if not to destroy the power of England over the independence of the country altogether, at least to place it in extreme jeopardy.

The last ceremony on record of the coronation of a King of Ireland took place here. Edward Bruce, who invaded Ireland in 1315, and overthrew the Earl of Ulster and the Anglo-Norman forces that opposed him in the north, laid siege to this town, which, after an obstinate resistance, and being nearly reduced to ashes, at length surrendered to him. Here, or rather at Knock-nemelan, now Castletown, in the immediate neighbourhood (the town being in a ruinous state, the consequence of the late siege,) with the consent of the native Irish, and the powerful Anglo-Norman chieftains the De Lacys, he was solemnly crowned King of Ireland, and upheld the splendour of a court there for some time after. Although he had defeated the English in no less than eighteen general engagements, and had been aided by his chivalrous and high-minded brother, Robert Bruce, in one of his campaigns, yet he was not able to bring the entire kingdom under his subjection : and now, after holding a considerable portion of it for three years, his usual good fortune seems to have deserted him, for on the 28th May, 1318, he was slain in the battle of Faughart, within two miles of Dundalk, the scene of his former glory, by Roger de Maupis, an Anglo-Irish knight, or as Lodge insists, a burgess of that town, who, disguised in fool's costume, entered Bruce's camp in that character, and taking advantage of an unguarded moment, struck out the hero's brains with a plummet of lead. But this must be perfect romance ; as all the authentic accounts agree, that Maupis, whether knight or burgess, having

formed the idea that the death of Bruce would at once give victory to the English, rushed devotedly into the thickest of the enemies' ranks, and singling him out, slew him, but with the sacrifice of his own life, as, after the battle, his body was found covered with wounds, and stretched across that of the fallen king. Although Bruce, in all his victories, was ever courteous to his prisoners, and awarded funeral honours to the heroic dead—as at the Moate of Ascol, when the English retreated and left him in possession of the field of battle, he had the remains of their officers interred with the same military honours and religious observances as his own. And that his brother Robert also, after the battle of Bannockburn, showed how well he could respect a brave but fallen foe :—yet these instances of generous warfare appear neither to have been appreciated or reciprocated by their implacable and haughty opponents. Descended from those Norman conquerors who, after subduing the northern provinces of France, and the whole of England, extended their ravages to Ireland, Wales, and Scotland, they made war their trade, and were ever ready to embark in any enterprise that had conquest or plunder for its object. They were unquestionably then the bravest and most formidable soldiers in Europe, and although repeatedly beaten by Edward Bruce, it must be remembered, that the De Lacys and some of the bravest of their warriors were to be found in his ranks. They were (notwithstanding their great military capacity) sanguinary, ferocious, and cruel. They never failed to trample on a fallen foe, to exult over his misfortunes while living, and even to revile his memory when dead. Sir John Birmingham, who commanded the English on this occasion, true to his origin and *caste*, treated the remains of Bruce with savage insult. He had his body quartered, and exhibited over the country the scene of his many victories, while he preserved the head, to be presented by himself to the English monarch, which procured him the Earldom of Louth and a grant of the manor of Ardec. Some historians, however, contend, that his remains rest in the cemetery of the Convent of St. Bridget, on Faugharthill, and the spot that contains them is still pointed out by the surrounding peasantry. Sir John MacNeile, who was born in the neighbourhood, made an attempt in 1824 to ascertain the

fact, and opened the supposed resting-place of the monarch, but had not proceeded far, when many persons, the bones of whose ancestors lay near the spot, evinced so much discontent and uneasiness, deeming it a species of desecration to disturb the ashes of the dead, that he was unwillingly obliged to desist; and it is still a matter of doubt whether any portion of Bruce's mortal remains lie there interred or not. But it is not likely, that if his implacable enemies had lopped off the members for the purpose of exercising their savage indignities on them, they would treat the trunk or body with more respect, and assign it funeral honours in consecrated ground. During the seven centuries that England partially or exclusively held sway in Ireland, no event occurred in that long period so dangerous to its power and authority as Bruce's invasion, and no doubt can exist, that if the native Irish Princes had united cordially in supporting him, and establishing the government of the country under one monarch, their proud and insatiable invaders must have shared the same fate as their predecessors the Danes, and would have been expelled the kingdom. The honours and territory conferred on Sir John Birmingham for this act of service to the English crown were viewed with envy and dissatisfaction by the first Anglo-Norman settlers in Louth, such as the De Gernons, De Verdons, and others, who considered themselves better entitled to them than Birmingham, who had more recently arrived in the country; they therefore confederated against him, and in 1329, eleven years after this memorable event, while Sir John, then Earl of Louth, and *suite* were on a visit to Richard Talbot, Lord Malahide, to spend the Whitsun holidays, they attacked them at Balbriggan, where both noblemen, with many of their kindred, and sixty of their English followers were slain. In 1338 Theobald de Verdon obtained a grant of a market and fair for fifteen days, to be held here. About this period O'Hanlon, Chief of Uladh, attacked the town, but was repulsed with the loss of two hundred of his followers. Richard II. confirmed all the previous charters, and made the town a free borough by the name of "The Bailiffs and Commonalty of the Borough of Dundalk," to whom Henry IV. granted certain tolls and customs for building and repairing the walls against the attacks of the Irish. In 1558 the Lord Deputy Sydney solicited

an interview here with Shane O'Neill, who refused, but induced the Deputy to visit him at the Fews, where he was regally entertained, and was present at the christening of one of his children. In 1560, the town was besieged by Shane O'Neill, but it was so valiantly defended by the inhabitants, that he was obliged to raise the siege. In 1563, it was again attacked by him, but was relieved by the Deputy Sussex, between whom and O'Neill a mutual restitution of plunder took place. In 1596, a conference was held by the English commissioners, Bouchier and Fenton, with Hugh O'Neill, outside the walls, when it was proposed by them to make Dundalk the frontier between the English and Irish territories. In 1641, the chivalrous Roger Moore, aided by Bryan Mac Mahon, took possession of this town with a force of 2,500 men, which they held for some time, but Sir Henry Tichbourne besieged it, and, after a brave resistance, succeeded in taking it. In 1649, Colonel, afterwards the celebrated General Monk, held the town for the parliament; but, the garrison evincing symptoms of disaffection, he surrendered it to Lord Inchiquin, who took possession of it for the king; but after the sack of Drogheda he evacuated it, and it was delivered up to Ludlow, Cromwell's lieutenant, without opposition, which did not, however, prevent his exercising the usual Cromwellian atrocities against the inhabitants. Charles II. granted a charter to the corporation, which consisted of "a bailiff, sixteen burgesses, freemen, and commonalty of the borough of Dundalk," by which considerable properties were vested in it, for the use and benefit of the town: some of these are the north and south marshes, premises in Dundalk, the lands of Hainstown, Stonehouse, Churchtown, and the commons of Dromiskin, &c. But during the operation of the penal code, when the affairs of the corporation fell into the hands of a few individuals, the town was fraudulently deprived of the whole of these properties, so that not a particle of them remains for appropriation to the purposes for which they were originally granted by the crown.

Early in 1689, Dundalk was strongly garrisoned for James II., but abandoned in the autumn, on the approach of Marshal Schomberg with a superior Williamite force. The town being incapable of accommodating so large an army, and the Irish in force on

the heights over it, Schomberg most injudiciously formed an encampment in the low marshy ground north of the town. Here, while he remained inactive, famine and pestilence set in, and made dreadful havoc in his ranks. To such a fearful extremity was he reduced, and so completely insensible and stultified were his soldiers, that they made seats of the dead bodies of their comrades to protect them from the moist ground, and complained, when deprived of them for interment. In a short time 2,000 of his men died of disease; a similar number of sick was shipped for England in the return vessels, which at length brought provisions to Carlingford, the greater part of whom died on the passage, and Schomberg was obliged to evacuate the place and retreat to Belfast in the depth of winter, having lost on this occasion 5,000 men, the flower of his army. Had James been more vigilant, and taken advantage of this disaster, the tide of fortune might have then turned in his favour; but he appears to have given himself up to empty parade in the metropolis; and when urged by Marshal Rosen, previous to Schomberg's retreat on Belfast, to attack his shattered forces in their intrenchments at Dundalk, he turned a deaf ear to his advice, which occasioned Rosen to remark, "that had he ten instead of three kingdoms at issue on the contest, he would lose them all." It appears that the mortality was confined to the English troops, whom historians relate were so careless and dirty in their habits, that Schomberg was heard to say, "the English will fight, but they are too lazy to work:" an observation that the English of the present day, with less truth, are too much in the habit of using towards the Irish. The Dutch soldiers, who had kept themselves clean and warm by their own exertions, only lost eleven men, while the English were carried off wholesale by the distemper. Immediately after Schomberg's departure, the Duke of Berwick, natural son to James II. by Arabella Churchill, sister to the great Marlborough, (by means of whose easy virtue, he obtained promotion in the army, and was one of the first to desert the cause of his king and benefactor,) with the van of James's army again took possession of the town, and occupied the heights to the south, called from that circumstance Ballybarrack, a more eligible and healthy position than that selected by his veteran

opponent. The municipal body was favourable to James, who had granted the town a liberal charter in the fourth year of his reign, confirming that granted by Charles II., and increasing the corporate body from sixteen to twenty-three burgesses, in order to introduce the Catholic party thereto. On the approach of William the following summer, the garrison again vacated the place, falling back on the main body of James's army, then encamped at Ardee. After the battle of the Boyne, and that William had established his government in the country, the corporation again became exclusively Protestant; and a portion of the demesne was granted to Lady Anne Hamilton, the greater part of the 274 acres of which it consists being then corporate property. It was by means of this small grant that the family of Hamilton had first a connexion with the borough of Dundalk. James Hamilton, late Earl of Clanbrassil, as well as Lord Limerick who preceded him, succeeded to this property in right of relationship to her. In the reign of George II. an Act was passed rendering non-resident Protestants eligible to fill situations of burgesses and other offices in the corporate towns of Ireland, on the ground that there were not a sufficient number of resident Protestants therein to discharge these duties. This gave an opportunity to the leading members of the Dundalk corporation, to whom its affairs were confided, to satisfy the inferior burgesses and freemen with some nominal favour, and divide the rich spoil that the town properties afforded among themselves. The charter of Charles II. is explicit in describing these properties by name, and they now constitute the most valuable portion of the estates of Lords Roden and Clermont. From the time of Lady Anne Hamilton the situation of bailiff was invariably in the family, and about a century ago the legal adviser of the corporation was a Mr. Fortescue. To retain not only possession of the property, but also to monopolise the representation of the borough, Lords Clanbrassil and Roden appointed none but members of their own family, or retainers on whom they could rely, to the situation of burgess or freeman. About the year 1784, a Mr. Read, who had been agent to the former nobleman, and who was a burgess of the corporation, attempted to open the borough, and wrest the representative power and property out of the hands of his Lordship,

but, after considerable excitement and several suits at law, he was defeated, and the consequence was, that the corporation became every day more close and corrupt.

In 1798, Dundalk was placed under martial law, and the inhabitants were for a season at the mercy of a brutal soldiery, such as the Welsh horse, and of a bigoted and vindictive yeomanry. Jonathan Seaver, with his ribald crew, the scum of the Killeavy bogs and mountains, took possession of the town. Although the Association of United Irishmen was originally formed by Protestants and Presbyterians, yet the name of Catholic in Dundalk was synonymous with that of rebel, and the pitch-cap and triangle were exerted with more than ordinary severity there: one instance will be sufficient to demonstrate the disorganization that existed, and the tortures that were inflicted by armed mercenaries on a defenceless people.—James Kieran, a Catholic youth of seventeen or eighteen years of age, afterwards one of the most extensive merchants in Ireland, had returned from Newry in the month of May, where he had been to purchase English bills to remit his father's London correspondent: after dispatching his letter he was retiring to rest, when his room was entered by an armed soldiery, who dragged him to the guard-house. The Carlow militia, commanded by Colonel Latouche, was passing through the town, and he presided at a court-martial on this young man the following morning, and for the offence of having a candle to light him to bed, he was sentenced to receive three hundred lashes: one hundred and fifty of which were inflicted forthwith. Another attempt was made in 1824 to open the borough, and the excitement that was created, and continued up to 1826, was even greater than on the former occasion. Lord Roden had assumed the power of disposing of the representation of the borough as he thought proper, or of selling it, as he frequently did, to the highest bidder. On the occasion of returning a member in the room of Mr. Hartop, who had suddenly died in 1824, the corporate body was found to have dwindled below a majority. All that could be mustered were five burgesses and two freemen to return Lord Roden's nominee, Sir Robert H. Inglis. Notwithstanding, this defunct body made a return on the writ, which the House of Commons would have pronounced illegal,

had the petition against it been properly followed up. Although this second attempt at opening the borough was not more successful than the first, yet it had a beneficial effect in practically exposing the corruption that existed in the Irish borough system, and in aiding the efforts that were then making to obtain an extensive measure of parliamentary reform. It had also the effect of rousing, not only the people of the borough, who had been so long and so shamefully misrepresented, from their apathy, but also the county, which had been for half a century a close borough in the hands of two aristocratic families, the Fosters and Jocelyns, who neither represented the feelings, opinions, or interests of the people. The general election of 1826 found the county thus circumstanced, and when the assertion of its independence was considered more than problematical, a man whose memory should be ever dear to the people of Louth was induced in this emergency to come forward as a candidate for its representation; and his advocacy, in the most unlimited sense, of the principles of civil and religious liberty was his claim to the support of its constituency. This man was Alexander Dawson, a barrister by profession, but who had for some time retired into private life, where he devoted himself to literary and philosophical pursuits. A sacred duty to his country now impelled him from these studies, which he loved so well; and no man could have been better qualified for the task he had undertaken:—open, generous, liberal and sincere, he had been long popular with the people, and was venerated by the poor, whose liberties and interests he invariably protected in his magisterial capacity. Nothing could resist his eloquent appeals to the national feelings and patriotism of the Louth electors;—personal considerations were flung to the winds. The devotion of the forty-shilling freeholders, in particular, was above all praise; and, although he had only nine days to canvass the county, he was triumphantly returned at the head of the poll by a majority of 341 votes: from that moment the independence of the county was secured;—not so, however, the borough, which required the interference of parliament to reform it, as well as the others, similarly circumstanced, throughout Ireland. By the Act of the 2nd of William IV., c. 88, the exclusive electoral power which the corporation had assumed was now

annulled, merely reserving the votes of the resident burgesses and freemen, who were then very limited, and extending the elective franchise to £10 householders. The number of registered electors under this Act in 1834 was 376; in 1849 they were 426. Under the Act of the 13th & 14th Vic., c. 69, which vested the franchise in rated occupiers of £8 per annum to the poor, the number had decreased to 267, showing that this qualification, which was intended to extend the borough constituencies, was more stringent than that which preceded it under the statute of William, and had reduced the number from 32,648 to 28,301—being a decrease of 4,347 in the 33 boroughs. If the rate to the poor is to regulate the franchise at all, £5 would be quite ample in the Irish, and fully equal to £8 in the English, boroughs. In 1853, the number of rated occupiers of £8 in the borough of Dundalk was 290, and 4 burgesses or freemen, the staff remaining of the defunct corporation: total 294. Under the head of Representation of Ireland, it has been shown that the borough comes within the range of the new ministerial scheme of disfranchisement by 5 persons in the population and 6 in the constituency, although it has now 62 rated occupiers more than Dungarvon, 21 more than Tralee, and 68 more than Wexford—boroughs which are to be saved by having constituencies of more than 300, made up of other superficial qualifications. This borough returned members to parliament as early as the year 1374, and up to the time of the Union continued to send two to the Irish, and since then one to the united parliament. The present member is George Bowyer, Esq., son of Sir George Bowyer, Bart., Radley Park, Abingdon, Berks, a barrister, and a Roman Catholic. There being neither lands nor tenements left, as in Drogheda, out of the extensive properties granted by the Crown for the use and benefit of the town, fifteen Commissioners are appointed under the 9th George IV., c. 82, who levy, by an annual tax on the inhabitants, the expense of lighting, paving, and watching the town. By a recent parliamentary return, (No. 678, dated 28th June, 1853,) there were 205 householders eligible to be elected Commissioners, 634 qualified to vote, 735 householders rated at £4, 500 at £8, 396 at £10, 348 at £12, and 269 at £15: but this must be erroneous, as the number of houses of every description in the town, returned by the Census Commissioners of 1851, was only 1,679,

whereas, according to this return, they amount to 2,247, being an increase of 568 since 1851, which is by no means probable: the rates levied for 1851 were £641—£358 of which was appropriated to lighting, paving, &c., and the remainder to salaries, &c., of municipal officers. The town was well lit with gas until very recently, when, to lessen the local taxation, the Commissioners were obliged to reduce the number of lamps.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—In the reign of Charles II. the linen trade had been extensively established here by Lord Dungannon, who had then a considerable interest in the town, and more recently the cambric and muslin manufacture was introduced, and those extensive buildings which are now occupied as cavalry barracks were built expressly for the weavers employed in that manufacture. It was then called the Parliament Square, from the circumstance of the legislature granting bounties to encourage the trade, but it did not succeed, and it was said that Thomas Gattaker, an English gentleman, subsequently surveyor of the port, had sunk a considerable sum in the business there, and at the Scotch Green, a short distance from the town, where he had established a bleach green and other works. The linen trade was, no doubt, carried on to some extent, from the circumstance of a Linen Hall being built, which still stands in Bridge Street. There were also, until within a recent period, several extensive bleach greens at Ravensdale. Sugar-baking was carried on to some extent here about the year 1784. A large sugar-house, lately in the possession of Mr. James Knowles, and converted by him into corn stores, was worked for many years by the late Mr. Zachariah Maxwell. Salt works were long established in the town, and also at Castletown, by a family of the name of Byrne; but these, with their dwelling-house, after plundering it, was burned down, in 1798, by the Dundalk yeomanry. For the last half century there has been an extensive distillery in the town, which, in the hands of the late Messrs. Malcolm, Browne, & Co., produced that firm considerable profits: it is now worked by Mr. Robert Haig, and the whiskey distilled by him is highly and deservedly esteemed. The Messrs. Russells have also a rectifying distillery, which did

considerable business during the prevalence of the total abstinence system inculcated by Father Mathew. Mr. P. Wynn's brewery is now the only one in operation, and he turns out about 300 barrels of porter and ale weekly. Mr. M'Alester, however, is preparing the Cambrickville brewery, which he expects to be working in the month of September. One of the most important concerns in the town is Mr. James Shekleton's foundry and engineering establishment, which affords constant employment to one hundred operative mechanics and labourers; the former are paid from 25s. to 40s., and the latter from 7s. to 12s. a week. He constructs boilers, mill machinery, and castings of all descriptions, and his operations are of great benefit to the town. There had been, until very recently, two extensive tobacco manufactories, which contributed materially to increase the customs' duties of the port. The death of Mr. James Carroll, who was the most extensive manufacturer in the north of Ireland, has been the principal cause of the decrease in them for the last two years of from £12,000 to £13,000. Notwithstanding that, his relative, Mr. Patrick Carroll, is doing an increased business, and employs from forty to fifty men and boys. The other manufactories are four tan yards—the most extensive are Messrs. T. Coleman's and T. Marmion's; two salt works; three malt houses; two steam corn and flour mills; the largest windmill in Ireland, but now in a dilapidated state; one starch and three soap manufactories; two rope walks; and one pin factory. There has been also a flax-spinning mill on a small scale, which has been discontinued for the last year. And here surprise may be well expressed that Dundalk, with all its advantages for manufacturing purposes, has not been able to sustain this solitary attempt at introducing flax spinning into the town. After much delay, the embroidering light cottons and muslins now employs upwards of two thousand females in the Dundalk district. Independent of the corn and flour mills in the town, there are others in the neighbourhood, at Chanonrock, Waterlodge, Scotchgreen, and particularly the Philipstown Mills, erected by the late Mr. James Kieran, which cost upwards of £30,000, and are not now producing more than one-half per cent. on the investment. There are two spade and shovel manufactories in the neighbourhood; and Sir John

MacNeile's flax scutching mills at Mount Pleasant, about two miles from Dundalk, were well calculated to afford accommodation to the Louth flax growers; they have been, however, recently destroyed by fire. It is to be hoped the premises were insured, that they will be speedily rebuilt, and operations again resumed. Forty years ago Dundalk had comparatively an extensive foreign trade to what it has at present. It imported hemp, flax, and tallow from St. Petersburg and Riga; timber from Memel and Dantzic; bar iron (in considerable quantity) and deals from Stockholm and Gottenburg; deals from Drontheim; bark, flax, flaxseed and cloverseed from Rotterdam; barilla, wine, and cane reeds from Alicant; wine from Oporto; timber and deals from British America. From 1802 to 1824 Mr. James Kieran was the principal merchant engaged in this foreign trade. About the year 1808 his brother, Mr. William Kieran, commenced curing beef and pork, and during the three succeeding years the greater part of the government contract for supplying the navy with provisions, which was then very large, was made up in this port. The trade was subsequently carried on less extensively by Messrs. William James Hogg, Martins and Fitzpatrick, Anthony Marmion, John Chambers & Co., John Robinson, &c. Dundalk, as well as Drogheda, for the four years previous to 1854, has had numerous cargoes of wheat and Indian corn from the Black Sea. The returns of the Railway Commissioners in 1835 make the exports, which consisted of flour, meal, malt, butter, beef, pork, cattle, sheep, pigs, linen, flax, eggs, and poultry, amount to £452,813. The imports were coal, bark, soap, oil, tallow, hemp, rock salt, tea, sugar, and iron, from British ports, and timber, tallow, wine and bark, &c., from foreign ports: valued at £107,053. The number of persons employed in collecting the Customs' revenue of this port in 1849 was 17, and their united salaries amounted to £773 7s. Formerly the excise for the district was collected here, but the office for some years has been removed to Drogheda. The postage collected in Dundalk for the years ending 5th January, 1851, was £1,068; in 1852, £968; and in 1853, £1,052: and the amount of stamps distributed for the county Louth, was, in 1851, £1,857; in 1852, £1,831; and in 1853, £1,949. The following tables will exhibit the trade of the port for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850:—

DUNDALK.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of this Port, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending, with the five preceding years.

Years ending January 5th.	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Shipping.	Customs' Duties Collected.																	
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					Total.					Foreign Trade.							British and Coasting Trade.					Total.											
	British.		Foreign.			Total.		British.		Foreign.			Total.		British.		Foreign.			Total.			British.		Foreign.			Total.											
	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.			Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.									
1841..	10	1816	7	1031	17	2847	728	59932	746	62779	2	434	1	698	3	1122	422	43008	426	44130	15	1276	20091																
1842..	7	1370	3	493	10	1863	611	54734	621	56597	1	232	1	210	2	442	424	41744	426	42186	15	1265	24854																
1843..	9	1694	2	374	11	2068	703	62214	714	64282	1	95	1	95	2	287	287	29908	288	30003	17	1385	26186																
1844..	8	1567	2	321	10	1888	608	54364	618	56252	1	268	1	238	2	506	395	42418	397	42924	17	1388	23057																
1845..	9	1571	5	683	14	2154	640	68987	664	70541	3	642	1	120	4	762	441	56628	445	57390	19	1947	28639																
	43	8018	19	2802	62	10820	3290	299631	3352	310451	8	1671	4	1256	12	2927	1969	213706	1981	216633	83	7261	121826																
1846..	21	3924	7	1091	28	5015	697	73814	725	78829	11	2450	3	699	14	3049	434	58360	448	61409	23	2182	33753																
1847..	19	4145	8	1504	27	5649	691	72760	718	78409	7	2053	4	828	11	2881	296	48324	307	51205	23	2004	40629																
1848..	13	1873	14	2154	27	4027	609	80252	636	84279	6	993	4	823	10	1816	288	61194	298	63010	26	2636	40794																
1849..	15	3161	9	1862	24	5023	724	90264	748	95287	6	1066	6	1270	12	2336	406	70764	418	73100	30	3331	44393																
1850..	17	2990	4	696	21	3586	633	84777	654	83363	4	676	1	228	5	904	341	65914	346	66818	27	3095	41621																
845 o 50	85	16093	42	7207	127	23300	3354	401867	3481	425167	34	7238	18	3748	52	10986	1765	304556	1817	315542	129	13248	201190																
841 o 45	43	8018	19	2802	62	10820	3290	299631	3352	310451	8	1671	4	1256	12	2927	1969	213706	1981	216633	83	7261	121826																
841 o 50	128	24111	61	10009	189	34120	6644	701498	6833	735618	42	8909	23	5004	64	13913	3734	518262	3798	532175	212	20509	323016																
Incr....	42	8075	23	4405	66	12480	64	102236	129	114716	26	5567	14	2492	40	8069	204	90840	164	98909	46	5987	79364																

These Tables show, that during ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered this port from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 34,120 tons, of which 10,009 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 701,498 tons: total Inwards 725,515 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 19,919 tons cleared out for Foreign ports; and from Great Britain and Coastways 618,262 tons: total Outwards 682,175 tons. There were registered belonging to the port 212 vessels of 30,009 tons, and the Customs' duties collected therein was £232,016. Comparing the five years ending the 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade of 12,480 tons, of which 4,409 tons were Foreign shipping; and on that with Great Britain and Coastways 102,236 tons: total increase Inwards being 114,716 tons. On the Foreign trade Outwards there was an increase of 8,059 tons, of which 2,494 tons were Foreign shipping; and on the British and Coasting trade 90,850 tons: although there was a decrease in the vessels of 204. The total increase Outwards was 98,909 tons, being 149½ per cent. on the total Foreign, and 37½ per cent. on the British and Coasting trade of the port. There appears to be an increase of 5,987 tons on the registered shipping, which proceeds from the same vessels being registered annually, but the actual increase was 8 vessels of 1,148 tons, or 36 per cent.; and on the Customs' revenue of £70,364, or 66½ per cent. on the five years.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows:—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tnqe.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Trade. Tnqe.	Foreign Tnqe.	Brit. and Coasting Tnqe.	Foreign Trade. Tnqe.	Foreign Tnqe.	Brit. and Coasting Tnqe.		
1851 ..	1,401	1,151	75,604 ..	509	..	55,873 ..	2,964	38,956
1852 ..	3,454	2,428	77,290 ..	603	1,025	55,132 ..	2,859	38,846
1853 ..	5,055	1,170	77,485 ..	1,441	624	61,244 ..	2,715	28,807
1854 ..	4,065	1,164	89,059 ..	179	98	69,287 ..	2,480	26,297

The Foreign trade of this port for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 3,061 tons, and British and Coasting 131,477 tons. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 7,510 tons, and the British and Coasting 132,422 tons: leaving an increase on the former of 4,449 tons, and on the latter of 945 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 8290 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 138,729 tons: being an increase on the previous year of 780 tons on the Foreign, and 6,307 tons on the British and Coasting trade. In 1854 the Foreign trade was 5,506 tons, and the British and Coasting 158,346 tons: being a decrease on the former of 2,784 tons, and increase on the latter of 19,617 tons. The registered shipping, which consisted of 28 vessels and 2,964 tons in 1851, declined in 1854 to 26 vessels of 2,480 tons—being a decrease of 2 vessels and 484 tons: and the Customs' revenue, as compared with 1851, shows a decrease of £12,659. In the registered shipping is included two very superior steam vessels, the "Pride of Erin," and the "Dundalk;" they are owned by the Dundalk Steam Packet Company: their net tonnage is 844 tons, and including their engine rooms, amounts to 1,364 tons. They cost about £25,000 each, and have paid on an average 20 per cent. per annum, and are employed in the Liverpool trade. Messrs. Napiers of Glasgow are now building another and a much larger steamer than either of these, which will be ready in May, to meet the anticipated increase of trade when the line of railway from Dundalk to Enniskillen is completed. The proprietors, however, have the interests of the port to consult, as well as their own, and the accommodation and convenience of the shippers should have their marked attention, as they have a well-

regulated competition in the Drogheda Company to contend against, which has not only already interfered with the cattle shipping trade of Dundalk, but with that of Dublin also.

The Harbour Improvements.—The harbour of Dundalk possessed so many natural advantages, that with a moderate outlay it could have been made a place of considerable nautical importance, but until very lately it has been grossly neglected. Under the pretence of improving it, public money was certainly obtained, but it has been appropriated to private or individual purposes, as almost all the parliamentary grants of the last century have been. In 1767, the Irish parliament voted, for the improvement of this harbour, £2,000, and £400 a year, which was paid for eight years, and amounted to £5,200 ; this money was entrusted to Lord Limerick, who had possessed himself of the Dundalk property in right of the small portion vested in Lady Anne Hamilton, and about the year 1747 appears to have first exercised a right over the corporate property by removing the remains of twenty old castles in the town, and replacing them by modern structures. It was about this period that the act of spoliation alluded to must have taken place, and the grant subsequently obtained, instead of being laid out on quays, or in deepening the channel, was expended in constructing a rampart extending from Soldier's Point towards the black rock, which effectually secured the south marsh, one of the properties so acquired from the encroachments of the sea. The harbour, up to 1837, was left to the operations of nature, and it is only surprising that, without the aid of man, it afforded so much accommodation. In that year an Act was passed, 3rd & 4th Vic., c. 119, for "regulating, preserving, and improving the port and harbour of Dundalk." Commissioners were appointed under it, with power to raise money on the security of the revenues of the port, to be expended on deepening the river, and otherwise improving the harbour. A dredging machine of 17-horse power was purchased, and piers constructed, which cost a large sum ; and a contract was entered into with a Mr. MacCormack, to effect the improvements under a plan laid down by Sir John MacNeile, which changed the course of the river from the south to the north channel by means of a solid

embankment, which runs from Soldier's Point to the steam packet quay, being a distance of more than a mile, and which cost £10,000. Previous to the purchase of the "James Watt" steam tug, this embankment was used for towing vessels to and from the quays. It is also a splendid walk in fine weather when the tide is in. But still it is more than probable, that the whole of the large sum expended on its construction has been thrown away, and that the south channel should have been preserved and deepened, notwithstanding its circuitous course at the bight of the point. That, however, could have been obviated by cutting a canal through the narrow neck of land which separated it from the deepest part of the river, on the east side of the point, and which would have made the south channel a straight line from thence to the quays. The whole of the land on the north side could then be reclaimed at a trifling expense, and would have been a most valuable property in the hands of the Harbour Commissioners, sufficient, in fact, to pay the expense of the proposed cut. The present channel, from the Soldier's Point to the bar, has been improved by the removal of several weirs, and it has been deepened considerably by the operations of the dredging machine—at low water there is not more than two or three feet of water on the bar, but there is a rise of from twenty to twenty-five feet at high water, and vessels drawing sixteen feet can come up to the quays. The whole of the channel is well defined with buoys and perches, and it and the bar are capable of being deepened still more. Just within the bar, on the south side, a light-house, forty-five feet high, has been recently erected on the screw pile principle, which will be most useful in marking the entrance to the harbour. The Steam Packet Company have built a fine warehouse, and otherwise improved their quay; and Mr. P. Russell, who has taken the old custom-house quay, has extended it to Martin's quay, and filled up an extensive mud bank, which had a most objectionable appearance at low water. There is now a fine line of wharfage, and the distance from the lower part of the town to the harbour has been considerably shortened by Mr. Russell's improvements. The Harbour Commissioners have raised on their debentures £20,150, which has been all expended on its improvement. Of this sum £9,500 has been advanced by the Belfast

Banking Company, £4,000 by the Earl of Roden, £2,000 by Mr. E. J. Smith, and the remainder by sundry persons. This constituted in 1853 the entire funded debt of the port, on which the Commissioners pay 5 per cent. per annum, with the exception of £1,000 from the Belfast Banking Company, which has been obtained at 4 per cent. There is some portion of the cost of the "James Watt" steam tug also due, but which will be paid off in the course of this year. This is a fine boat for the purpose, and, including her engine-rooms, measures 103 tons. The revenue of the port is derived from a tonnage duty of 6d. per ton on sailing vessels, and 3d. on steamers, dues on goods inwards and outwards, pilotage, ballast, towage and lighterage. The following are the receipts of the harbour revenue, and the expenditure thereof, at intervals of four years from 1840 to 1853:—

Years ending 15 Oct.	RECEIPTS.						EXPENDITURE.					
	Gross Revenue.			Portion de- rived from Tonnage.			Cost of Permanent Establishment.			Interest on Debt.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1841..	1,672	19	8	967	2	1 ..	612	11	6	27	16	2
1845..	2,024	12	5	1,254	16	7 ..	849	5	11	705	0	0
1849..	3,073	18	1	1,547	0	9 ..	663	19	8	1,003	15	6
1853..	3,369	8	9	1,647	17	0 ..	1,026	19	3	1,048	9	7

It would, therefore, appear, that the income of the port has doubled in fourteen years, but goods were not subject to dues until 1848; the increase, however, on tonnage is nearly to the same extent. The permanent expenses have also increased, which is, in a great measure, owing to the keep of the steam tug, but the towage is more than equal to it, and in 1853 left a surplus of £23 2s. 8d. There also remained a balance in the hands of the treasurer of £543 19s. 8d; and in the casual expenses there is a sum of £200 paid towards the purchase of the steam tug. Notwithstanding this satisfactory state of affairs, the Drogheda harbour dues are decidedly more moderate. In 1853, they were only £377 6s. 1d. over those of Dundalk, though its general tonnage was greater by 81,385 tons. Neither the Drogheda or Dundalk Harbour Commissioners derive any income from wharfage, the quays in both ports being the property of individuals who charge 2d. per ton on goods. There is a harbour-master, engineer, and

twenty-two pilots belonging to this port. The Dundalk fishing district extends from Ballagan Point to Maiden Tower; and in 1851 there were 283 registered fishing vessels, and 1,365 men and boys employed in the pursuit. The town is perfectly level, and consists of two, or rather three, principal streets, running SW., N., and E., which unite in the market square. One of these, Upper Seatown, in a straight line for a mile in the direction of the barracks and harbour, is spacious, and affords many eligible sites for building. The appearance of the town within the last thirty years has been greatly improved by the erection of a number of new houses in every direction. The Bank of Ireland, the National Bank of Ireland, and the Belfast Banking Company, have branches here, but the commercial business is principally done by the two latter.

The Public Buildings are—the County Court House, from a model of the Temple of Theseus at Athens, built of chiselled granite, with a portico and columns, of the Doric order, composed of Portland stone. The Market House, in which are the Assembly Rooms, Savings' Bank, and Guildhall, now a news-room. The County Gaol, an extensive modern building, which cost upwards of £20,000: it is conducted on the secret or silent system, which is more calculated to furnish members for the lunatic asylum than renovated society. The County Infirmary, occupying a fine healthy situation, cost £3,000. The Union Workhouse at Ballybarrack, a short distance from the town. The Barracks, fine cavalry quarters. The Butter Crane erected in 1812, with extensive cooperage, and a fine range of warehouses for grain, which cost £5,000, raised on debentures of £50 each.

The Houses of Religious Worship are—the Protestant Parish Church, connected with which is an ancient tower, covered with ivy, and surmounted with a copper-sheathed steeple. The Catholic Church is a splendid edifice, in the Gothic style of architecture, from a design by Mr. T. J. Duff, a Newry architect. Its front, formed of chiselled granite, is very beautiful, presenting a fine arched doorway, and embattled octagon towers, which are seen, although the site is

apparently low, at a considerable distance in the approach to the town. The interior is very spacious, the roof supported by Gothic arches, which divides the three aisles of which it consists. There is a magnificent window of stained glass in the eastern extremity over the altar, which is composed of Caen marble, both illustrated with Scriptural imagery. It has been recently finished, and is now one of the finest religious structures in the kingdom. There is also a Dominican Friary, and a convent of the Sisters of Mercy. The Presbyterian and Wesleyan houses of worship are handsome modern buildings, and are eligibly situated. There is also a Primitive Wesleyan Chapel on a small scale.

The Educational Institutions are—the National Schools, erected on the site of the old Catholic chapel, where there are six hundred boys educated, and others at the Friary. An Institution under the patronage of the Incorporated Society. A School on Erasmus Smith's foundation; the building cost £1,700, of which £750 was given out of his bequest, as well as salaries to the master and mistress of £30 each, but there is scarcely any attendance of pupils. The Sisters of Mercy have a School connected with the convent, where 300 poor girls are instructed daily. There are several private schools besides, where a number of boys and girls receive education.

The Union Workhouse is built on the acclivity of Ballybarrack Hill, on Lord Clermont's estate, who gave the site gratis; the Government advanced £9,100 towards the building, out of which £1,280, up to 1851, was repaid: it is capable of containing 920 inmates, and was opened 29th September, 1850, when the old house was given up. The Union contains 104,434 acres, and a population, in 1851, of 53,761 persons, in 19 electoral divisions, represented by 20 elected and 20 *ex officio* guardians, who meet on Thursdays. The property, valued under the 6th & 7th William IV., c. 84, was £86,610; the expenditure in 1851 was £3,289; in 1852, £3,805 17s. 7½d.; and the rate in aid levied in 1851-2 was £722 11s. 4d. The Inmates are employed in industrial pursuits, such as weaving, spinning, shoe making, tailoring, and embroider-

ing muslin, and in agricultural operations on the grounds. The station of the Dublin and Belfast Junction Railway lies between the town and the workhouse, which is also used for the same purpose by the Dundalk and Enniskillen Company. The continuation of the latter line is now in progress of construction from Ballibay to Clones, and from thence to Enniskillen, without further delay—other particulars connected with this line will be found under the head of Railways. There are two newspapers published here—The Louth Advertiser and Newry Examiner twice a-week, and the Dundalk Democrat every Saturday.

Proceeding by sea to Carlingford, some splendid mountain scenery on the north side of the harbour is passed, and the bay is again entered, which is seven miles across at its mouth, from Dunany to Cooley Point, near which is Giles Quay, at one time esteemed a suitable place for a harbour of refuge. The Bay affords good and safe anchorage ground in from four to eight fathoms of water. Vessels have been known to ride out here the severest gales without dragging their anchors. Carlingford Lough is now approached, the entrance to which is formed by Cranfield, on the Down, and Ballagan Point on the Louth side. There is a light-house on Haulbowline Rock, at the mouth of the Lough, erected in 1823, at an elevation of 108 feet above high water, which displays a fixed white light, discernible fifteen miles at sea. At Greenore Point, which lies on the south side of the Lough, between Ballagan and Carlingford, another house was erected in 1830, which exhibits a revolving light, also seen some leagues to sea. To render, however, the navigation complete, it is said, another light is required at Black Rock Point, near Warrenpoint.

CARLINGFORD, although not a maritime port, must be considered in some degree as an integral part of the port of Newry, and where its customs were formerly collected. It was a place of such vast importance during the early occupation of the country by the Anglo-Normans, and up to the beginning of the last century, that it is not possible to pass it by without giving a brief sketch of its history. This ancient town is situated at

the base of Sleive Foy, and was well adapted for commerce, from its contiguity to the sea, and its magnificent Lough, where vessels of the largest tonnage can safely ride in all kinds of weather. It is admirably situated for a safety harbour, being equi-distant between Kingstown and the Lough of Belfast; and, once entered, there is not another in the United Kingdom where shipping would be more completely sheltered and protected than in this. Its bar, however, in its present state, is a fatal objection to it, as at low water there is only about eight feet on it, and to render it available it should have from eighteen to twenty feet at all times of tide. It is three quarters of a mile long, and 700 feet broad, composed of blue clay and boulders, upon a strata of limestone rock, running across the entrance to the Lough. This obstruction once passed, the water instantaneously deepens to eight fathoms and upwards. Outside the bar there is eighteen feet, and at a short distance an immense depth of water, in fact, it is the Irish Sea. To effect this object it would take, at the lowest calculation, £60,000; but there are some persons experienced in such matters who say it would take double that sum, and that it would be then impossible to prevent its filling again. In the absence, however, of a survey promised by the Admiralty, it is quite impossible to form a correct estimate of the expense. It must have been also a place of some importance in the early annals of Ireland, as it appears, that although St. Patrick first landed at Dundrum as a captive, Carlingford had the honour of being the spot where his apostolic mission commenced in 432. At an early period of the Anglo-Norman invasion, Sir John de Courcy was in possession of Carlingford. In 1184, he granted the tolls of the ferry to the Abbey of Downpatrick, which he had previously founded. In 1210, King John's Castle was erected, where that monarch held his court for some time. The site was well chosen, as it commanded the entrance to the harbour and the narrow pass communicating with the Ulster frontier. It must have been a magnificent pile in the days of its ancient glory, for, although it has been long in ruins, it still wears an air of grandeur that renders it a most interesting and imposing object. In 1305, Richard de Burgh, Earl of Ulster, founded here a monastery for Dominican friars, which was dedicated to St.

Malachi. It suffered from the despoiling hands of the early reformers, being suppressed by Henry VIII., and granted to Nicholas Bagnal at they early rent of £4 6s. 8d., and during the ravages of Cromwell it was made a stable by Lord Inchiquin's troopers. A portion of it was still further desecrated; up to a very recent period being used as a racket-court, or ball-alley: the ruins which still remain standing are overhung with ivy, and are highly picturesque and interesting. A fine-toned bell, of Irish manufacture, that once exercised its functions in this abbey, was conveyed to Liverpool, and sold for a large sum of money by one of the modern Protestant rectors, whose right to the property was more than doubtful; it is now, however, an appendage to one of the churches there. In 1326, Geoffrey le Blound was made governor or constable of the castle by Edward II. In 1357, Edward III. granted it to his son Lionel, then Earl of Ulster, with license to hold a fair and market there. He was succeeded by Edward de Mortimer. In 1388, Edward de Loundres was constable, and the castle was then reported to stand in need of repair. In 1400, Henry IV. made Stephen Gernon constable both of this place and Green Castle, with power to levy tithes, &c., within the lordship of Cooley, for victualling these garrisons. In 1404, it was granted in fee to Richard Seagrave. In 1408, Lord Thomas of Lancaster, son to Henry IV., landed here as lord-lieutenant; and a stone seat, called the King's Chair, is still shown between the battlements of a large quadrangular tower, where this prince is said to have often enjoyed the glorious prospect it afforded. Near this ruin is the Tholsel, an insignificant looking building, considering that the bailiff and burgesses, who once met there, gave law to a great part of Louth, Down, and Armagh. In 1467, a mint was established here by Edward IV. In 1495, the wily Henry VII., finding the Anglo-Irish as Irish as the aborigines, decreed that none but Englishmen born should be appointed constables of Carlingford Castle; and in 1501 granted the corporation tolls and customs towards enclosing it with walls. In 1548, Edward VI. granted to Sir Nicholas Bagnal the manors of Omeath, Carlingford, and Cooley. In 1560, it was represented in the Irish parliament by Sir H. Radcliff and John O'Neill. In 1596, Henry Oge, son-in-law to Hugh

O'Neill, attempted to surprise the Castle. In 1642, it suffered severely from an attack by Sir Phelim O'Neill, but was soon after taken possession of by Sir Henry Tichbourne. In 1646, free-trade was conferred on it. In 1649, it surrendered to Lord Inchiquin, and in 1650 it was delivered to the parliamentary forces under Sir Charles Coote and Colonel Venables. In 1689, the Duke of Berwick partly burnt the town; and soon after the sick of Marshal Schomberg's army, which suffered so severely by pestilence at Dundalk, were embarked here in the most frightful state of exhaustion, the greater part of whom died on the voyage to England. In 1690, Lord Carlingford, who had espoused the cause of James, was slain while fighting valiantly at the battle of the Boyne—the title had been in the Taaffe family, but in 1738 it became extinct, or forfeited, and it was afterwards conferred, with the Earldom of Tyrconnel, on that of Carpenter, by George III. Admiral Thurot, who invaded Ireland with an insignificant French force in 1750, spent some time previously here, acquired a knowledge of the English language and inhabitants on the north-east coast. It was granted charters by Edward II., Henry IV., Henry VII., Elizabeth, James I. and James II., conveying considerable property in trust to the corporation for the benefit of the town. It was affected, however, in the same manner as Dundalk; and its parliamentary representation, and the property bestowed by the crown, for corporate purposes, monopolized by the most influential members, and fraudulently appropriated to their own use. Some barren spots, however, were taken possession of by the hardy and unemployed peasantry of the district, who, by years of incessant labour, actually changed these rocks into good arable ground: they were then so wild and valueless, that they escaped the vigilance and rapacity not only of the corporate members, but also of the landlords whose estates surrounded them, and occupation, without paying rent for twenty years, gave them a title. When Catholic Emancipation was granted, there were a great number of these 40s. freeholders in fee on the registry for the county Louth, all of whom were disfranchised, although in England such a qualification not only still exists, but the elector possessing it is, of all others, considered the most independent. When the legislative union was carried,

and long previous thereto, the elective and representative power was exclusively in the hands of two individuals, Colonel Ross and a Mr. Moore; the former, however, previous to that eventful period, sold his interest in the representation to the Marquis of Downshire; and he, and the guardians of Mr. R. B. Moore, divided the bribe of £15,000 for betraying the national independence.

The principal part of the town is now Lord Clermont's. A portion, however, belongs to the Marquis of Anglesea, who is lord of the manor. Carlingford, although so admirably situated for commerce, has little or no trade: Newry, as the port, engrosses all, with the exception of its oyster and limestone export, and a few cargoes of grain shipped annually. Its oysters are superior in flavour, even to the Purfleet, the best in England: the beds extend from Greenore Point to Narrow Water; and in the season seven or eight sail, and eighty to one hundred rowed boats, are employed in dredging for them. Its extensive limestone quarries have been worked for the three last centuries, but they still appear inexhaustible. This beautiful stone is hard and of a dark blue colour, with numerous fissures of aquatic animals at present unknown: a large quantity is shipped annually to Wales and the North of England. It must have been in former days a place of great strength and importance, as early in the last century the ruins of upwards of thirty castles and churches could be traced; all that now remain are three of the former, and the tottering tower and wall of the Dominican monastery. There is a Protestant church, a Catholic chapel, and a Presbyterian meeting-house, all of modern date. And the National School is a handsome edifice constructed of beautiful limestone. It is a division of the Dundalk Union under the Poor Law Act.

NEWRY.

NEWRY, anciently called *Nyvorcintracta*, which in Irish is analogous to "yew trees," is 63 statute miles N. of Dublin, 38 S. of Belfast, and about 20 S. E. of Armagh. It is situated partly in Down and partly in Armagh counties, in lat. $54^{\circ} 10' N.$, long. $6^{\circ} 20' W.$ Its parliamentary area is 2,543 acres, of which 629 is in the town, and 1914 in the rural district. In 1841 the population of the town was 11,972, and of the rural district 1,255—total 13,227 persons; and the number of houses of all descriptions was 2,336. In 1851, the population of the town, including the rural district, was 13,491, and the houses were 2,244—being an increase of 264 persons, and a decrease of 92 houses. The parish comprises 22,491 statute acres, of which $968\frac{1}{2}$ are in O'Neilland Barony West, and $4,501\frac{1}{2}$ in Lower Orior; the remainder, including a small portion in Upper Iveagh, 17,054 acres, constitutes the Lordship of Newry. In 1612, James I. granted the town a charter constituting it a free borough, by the name of "The Provost, Free Burgesses, and Commonalty of the Borough of Newry," and vesting in the provost and burgesses the exclusive power of sending two representatives to the Irish parliament; this privilege, however, was altered at the time of the Union, when it was made a scot and lot borough, and the representation limited to one member. The election contests since then have been occasionally very severe: and although the Earl of Kilmorey, on whose property the town is built, has great influence with the electors, still the popular party has frequently defeated his nominee. The celebrated John Philpot Curran unsuccessfully contested this borough in 1812. The constituency in 1834 was 776. In 1849, it was 803. In 1851, under the 13th & 14th Vict., c. 69, it declined to 517, and in 1853 there were 448 rated electors, and 19 otherwise qualified:

total, 467—of these 437 voted at the last election, when the present member, William Kirk, Esq., a resident gentleman of the neighbourhood, was returned by a majority of 29. The principal part of the town is situated in a delightful valley on the river Clanrye, but the old portion of it is on the acclivity of a hill. The river has its source in Drumlough, near Rathfriland: passing by Carnmeen and other beautiful spots that adorn its banks, and enlarged by tributary streams, it is of some magnitude when it reaches Newry, forming previously the boundaries of the counties of Down and Armagh in its course to Carlingford Lough, where it disembogues itself about five miles from the town. There are four bridges of stone across the river, and four drawbridges of wood over the canal, which run parallel in their course through the town. That portion of it which comprises the low ground and Merchants' Quay is well circumstanced, the streets are level and flagged, and lit with gas, the houses lofty, and the warehouses commodious and well laid out for business. On the S. E. and W. Newry is surrounded by high hills, overtopped by the Mourne, Carlingford, and Slievegullion mountains in the distance. To the northward the country is flat, and the soil rich and fertile, interspersed with villas, plantations, white cottages, and gardens attached thereto, which form a delightful landscape. The view of Newry from the south, as entered from the Dublin road, is particularly agreeable to the eye, and the canal which intersects the streets and walks, with vessels of considerable tonnage on its surface, gives it a strong resemblance to the Dutch or Belgian towns. It is a place of great antiquity, and is said to have been visited by St. Patrick. In 820, the Danes made one of their earliest irruptions here, from whence they proceeded to Armagh, taking it by storm, and plundering and desolating the country around. It was the first time since its foundation that the venerable city was in the hands of sacriligious foreigners. In 1157, the ancient Abbey, one of the most extensive religious establishments in Ulster, was founded by Murtogh O'Loughlin, King of Ireland, with the concurrence of the kings and nobles of Uladh and Ergallia, &c., and dedicated to the Blessed Virgin, St. Patrick, and St. Benedict. The charter granted by this monarch is the only monumental record of the kind extant previous

to the Anglo-Norman invasion. The Abbey, however, in 1162, with its extensive library, and the two yew trees said to be planted within the precincts by St. Patrick, were consumed by fire. In 1237 the endowments were confirmed by Hugh de Lacy, who succeeded the redoubted John de Courcy as Earl of Ulster. In 1315, Edward Bruce, on his march to Dundalk, reduced this town, and destroyed several of the castles erected by De Courcy. In 1543, Henry VIII., in his indiscriminate rage for spoliation, changed the constitution of the old Abbey into that of a Collegiate Church for secular priests, and confiscated its large revenues to his own use: but in the succeeding reign of Edward VI. it was granted to Sir Nicholas Bagnal, who made it his residence, rebuilt the town, gave it his name, and fortified it with castles and other defences. He was succeeded by Marshal Sir Henry Bagnal; and during the reign of Elizabeth it was strongly garrisoned by English troops. This garrison the Irish chieftain, Hugh O'Neill, whose energies were bent on freeing Ireland from English domination, looked on with a jealous eye; and the personal animosity that existed between him and Bagnal, excited him still further to expel it from this stronghold. In one of the many negotiations which the English government entered into with him, he demanded, in 1594, among other concessions, that Bagnal should be compelled to pay him £1,000 in silver as a marriage portion, with his sister, whom he had raised to the dignity of an O'Neill's bride. In 1595, Bagnal marched his forces into Mac Mahon's country, and forced the Irish to raise the siege of Monaghan; but his triumph was of short duration, being slain in the battle of Beal-an-atha-buid, near Armagh, in 1597, at the head of one of those fine armies raised in England for the subjection of Ulster; which was, nevertheless, totally routed, and in a great measure annihilated by an Irish force inferior in number and discipline, but commanded by their native chiefs O'Neill and O'Donnell: the consequence of this victory was the reduction both of Armagh and Newry, and the abandonment of Ulster, for a short period, by the English forces. After its restoration to English rule, James I., in 1613, regranted it by patent to Arthur Bagnal, including the old abbey, by the Latin name of *Necoricaise Monasterium*—in the foundation charter it is styled *Ibar-Cyn-Tracta*, which has

reference to the two large yew trees already described. The official seal still used by the town of Newry represents a mitred abbot seated with his alb; the cross in one hand, and the other uplifted, supported by two yew trees, with the inscription—

“*Siggellum exemptæ jurisdictiones de virido ligno alias Newry et Mourne.*”

Newries, a corruption of yew trees, was an appellation by which the town was long afterwards known. The patent establishes a market, to be held on Thursdays, with an annual fair; a Seneschal Court, where debts and trespasses to the amount of £66 13s. 4d., and a minor Court where £3 6s. 8d. Irish currency could be recovered. It entitles the patentee to the tithes of the lordship of Newry, and the presentation of the rectory of Mourne; and it grants and assigns the court leets, and all the several rights, immunities, and privileges—the same as those enjoyed by the head or chief governor of the late dissolved monastery: it conveys, in fact, the whole of Newry, with the exception of certain mills, lands, and tenements, granted by Nicholas and Henry Bagnal to Patrick Crilly, reserving a chief rent of £3 6s. 8d. for same: this property, included in the town-land of Cornehaugh, was purchased by Mr. Hill, ancestor to the Marquis of Downshire, from Crilly's heirs, and thus a portion of Newry passed into the hands of that family. In 1641, the town was taken by Sir Con Magennis, but was retaken by Lord Conway in 1642. A body of 2,500 Scots, part of that treacherous force of 10,000 to the interests of Charles which had recently landed at Carrickfergus, entered Newry under Robert Munroe, and the Irish party having committed some excesses previously, he retaliated, and put sixty men and eighteen women to death in cold blood. In 1689 it was burned by the Duke of Berwick in his retreat before Schomberg; one castle, probably that which still stands in Castle Street, and five or six houses, were all that escaped the conflagration. On the return of Schomberg's soldiers from their fatal encampment near Dundalk, when burying their dead in the old abbey ground, they dug up some huge stumps of yew trees, which they, nothing loath, converted into domestic furniture, and this circumstance tended to confirm the tradition that St. Patrick had planted such trees there. In the struggle at

this period between James II. and his son-in-law—Dudley Bagnal, who favoured the cause of James, had his own relation, the previous proprietor deposed, and was himself in turn dispossessed by an Act passed in the reign of William and Mary. The property, however, still continued in the hands of the Bagnal family, who had been exclusively in possession of it for more than a century and a half; when, in 1715, Nicholas, the last of the name, who was also possessed of the manors of Mourne and Carlingford, died, bequeathing his Louth property to Mr. Bayley, great-grandfather of the present Marquis of Anglesea; and the Armagh and Down estates to Robert Needham, whose son married the daughter of the great Lord Chatham. By this marriage he had two sons, George and William, who died without issue, leaving the property to Robert Needham, Viscount Kilmorey, grandfather to the present Earl, who derives £20,000 per annum from the Newry and Mourne estates. He is an absentee, and some years ago made himself conspicuous by some strange eccentricities. Since the revolution which placed William on the throne of his father-in-law, no event of military importance has taken place in Newry, and the inhabitants have been early in the field of commercial enterprise, cultivating the more desirable arts of peace. One of their first and greatest undertakings was the Newry Canal, the particulars of which have been already described under the head of Inland Navigation.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—The inhabitants of Newry, who so early evinced great commercial enterprise, have but indifferently directed their attention to manufactures. It is true that for many years Newry shared with Belfast the benefits resulting from the linen trade, and that, in the surrounding districts, a great portion of the population was employed in spinning and weaving; and numerous extensive bleach-greens, such as Carnmeen, were in operation to complete the manufacture of the cloth, great quantities of which were shipped from this port. There was also a considerable trade carried on in brown and half-bleached linen, by a number of persons with small capitals, who proceeded with it to England, where it underwent the ulterior process, and paid them handsomely. But since the introduction into Ireland of spinning

cotton and flax by machinery, there have been no efforts made to establish them in the town, which, from its population and contiguity to the great flax-growing districts, ought to have early taken a lead in the latter manufacture. There is no flax spinning, however, nearer than Bessbrook, where there is an extensive mill, which cost £30,000, driven by the Camlough water; but the most important, south of Belfast, is at Gilford, where half a million has been embarked in the manufacture by Mr. Dunbar, who has been himself the artificer of this large fortune. Formerly there were two large distilleries at work in Newry, one on the Dublin road, and the other in Monaghan Street, both the property of the late Mr. Denis Caulfield, who constructed the latter at a very considerable expense. The former has been some years ago converted into a corn-mill, for manufacturing meal for the English market, and is now worked by his nephews, Messrs. D. Maguire and D. C. Brady; that in Monaghan Street has been also discontinued since 1841, and does not now appear to be occupied for any other purpose. If distillation is not to be resumed on the premises, the site is admirably adapted for a flax spinning mill. There are two other corn mills; a flour mill worked by Mr. Kidd; 8 tan yards, the most extensive are Messrs. P. Murphy's and E. Forrest's; 3 coach and car, and 3 soap and candle manufactories; 2 rope and cordage works; 2 breweries; and 2 extensive foundries—Messrs. John Bennie and Sons have been long established; they erect steam engines and boilers on a large scale, and their castings have been always held in high estimation. Mr. James Edgar is also doing an extensive business in mill and other machinery: both establishments are in full operation, and employ about 200 men and boys, whose wages rule for artizans 21s. to 32s. 6d.; labourers 7s. to 12s., and boys 3s. to 8s. a week. Independent of these manufactures in the town, there are, in the immediate neighbourhood, Messrs. W. & J. Glenny's extensive flour, corn, and flax scutching mills at Glenville, and Mr. MacNeile's at Dumoley. There are two newspapers published here—the Newry Commercial Telegraph three times, and the Louth and Down Pilot twice, a week.

The amount of Postage and Excise collected in Newry, and of

Stamps for the counties of Down and Armagh, in which Newry is included, for the three years ending 5th January, 1853, was—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Postage of Newry Town.....	£1,257	£1,514	£1,831 15 6
Excise, Newry District	50,691	52,146	55,650 12 6
Stamps, county Down	4,448	4,623	4,982 9 10½
Ditto, county Armagh	3,811	5,984	4,217 11 7½

In 1758, Newry carried on an extensive commerce with foreign countries and the British colonies in America and the West Indies, but the expense and delay attending the landing and re-shipment of goods at an English port under the prohibitory system, gave the British merchant such a decided advantage, that it was not until free trade was established that the Newry merchant could successfully compete with him. From that period to the termination of the war, Newry in some branches of commerce even exceeded Belfast. It had a considerable trade with the Baltic, the Mediterranean, Holland, Norway, the United States, and British America; and previous to the East India Company's monopoly in tea being abolished, large quantities were imported from London, as well as sugar, rum, and other colonial produce; but the latter articles were more generally obtained from Liverpool, and, as they were then all subject to excessive duties, helped materially to swell the customs' revenue of the port. However, soon after the peace, Belfast continued to make rapid strides in every branch of commerce, aided, no doubt, by a liberal banking system, of which Newry had been deprived by the monopoly of the Bank of Ireland. Its exports however, have been very valuable. From 1st January, 1818, to the 24th February, 1819, (fourteen months,) its exports amounted to £1,030,879, which included 103,229 firkins of butter, and 4,719 boxes and bales of linen cloth, valued at £833,201. The returns of the Railway Commissioners in 1835 estimate the exports for that year at £616,836, and the imports at £568,711, and the customs' duties were £58,806. The exports are—linen cloth, butter, beef, bacon, pork, oats, oatmeal, flax and tow, feathers, oxen, pigs, sheep, horses, eggs, &c. The imports are—coals, bar and pig iron, lead, tin, slates and bark, tea, sugar, coffee, tobacco, wine, spirits, cotton, woollens, haberdashery, hardware, tallow, hemp, timber, deals, &c. The trade of the port since 1840 will be best shown by the following tables:—

NEWRY AND STRANGFORD.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of these Ports, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending with the five preceding years.

Years ending 5th January.	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Shipping.		Customs' Duties Collected.										
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					TOTAL INWARDS.					Foreign Trade.								British and Coasting Trade.					TOTAL OUTWARDS.				
	British.		Foreign.			Total.					British.		Foreign.			Total.								British and Coasting Trade.		Total.							
	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	£						
1841..	76	10485	11	1180	87	11665	1522	94415	1609	106080	46	8344	3	580	49	8924	1023	67394	1072	76318	203	10795	43650										
1842..	54	9031	14	2049	68	11080	1356	89179	1423	100259	39	5596	6	1155	45	6751	1141	70204	1186	76955	205	10755	41525										
1843..	62	11956	5	484	67	12080	1498	95532	1565	107612	44	8624	1	84	45	8708	1101	66380	1146	75088	209	10825	43410										
1844..	57	8550	8	1193	65	9743	1420	91928	1485	101671	23	3990	23	3990	1202	79271	1225	83261	208	11684	38577										
1845..	56	11991	8	1061	64	13052	1534	114315	1598	127367	26	7636	1	232	27	7868	1261	95628	1288	103496	210	11233	44346										
	305	51653	46	5967	351	57620	7329	485369	7680	542989	178	34190	11	2051	189	36241	5728	378877	5917	415118	1035	56292	21508										
1846..	43	13363	11	1545	54	15908	1606	117799	1660	133707	11	5297	2	525	13	5822	1440	104129	1453	109951	221	12101	39264										
1847..	35	9880	13	1315	48	10195	1554	123974	1602	134169	16	7202	3	450	19	7652	738	75823	767	83475	222	12182	41417										
1848..	46	9663	39	7639	85	17302	1011	94171	1096	111473	36	9825	29	5863	65	15688	480	63589	545	79277	213	11697	38070										
1849..	26	9674	9	1813	35	11487	1109	94062	1144	105549	22	9158	6	906	28	10064	596	63545	624	73609	207	11935	39202										
1850..	22	7456	4	272	26	7757	1421	110971	1447	118728	19	8238	19	8238	710	70684	729	78922	200	12919	35713										
1846 to '50	172	50065	76	12584	248	62649	6701	540977	6949	603626	104	39720	40	7744	144	47464	3964	377770	4108	425234	1063	60734	193666										
1841 to '45	305	51653	46	5967	351	57620	7329	485369	7680	542989	178	34190	11	2051	189	36241	5728	378877	5917	415118	1035	56292	21508										
1841 to '50	477	101718	122	18551	599	120269	14030	1026346	14629	1145615	282	73910	51	9795	333	83705	9692	756647	10025	840352	2098	116026	405174										
1833 to '50	133	1588	30	6617	103	5029	628	55608	731	60637	74	5530	29	5693	45	11223	1764	1107	1809	10116	28	5542	17842										
	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.										

These Tables show, that during ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered these ports from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 120,209 tons, of which 18,551 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 1,06,346 tons: total Inwards 1,44,015 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 88,705 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 9,795 were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastways 78,047 tons: total Outwards 840,892 tons. There were registered belonging to these ports 2,098 vessels of 116,028 tons, and the Customs' duties collected therein was £406,174. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade Inwards of 6,617 tons on the Foreign shipping, but a decrease on the British shipping from Foreign ports of 1,588 tons; and an increase on that with Great Britain and Coastways of 35,608 tons: total increase Inwards 40,687 tons, although there was a decrease of 731 vessels. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 11,223 tons, of which 6,693 tons were Foreign shipping; and on the British and Coastway trade there was a decrease of 1,107 tons, but an increase on the general trade Outwards of 10,116 tons. There appears to be an increase of 5,542 tons on the registered shipping, which is owing to the same vessels being registered every year; but the actual increase was 1,980 tons, and a decrease of 10 vessels on the shipping of 1845. The Customs' duties also decreased £17,112.

The tonnage entering inwards, and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows :—

Years.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Regis- tered Shipping Tnqe.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Trade. Tnqe.	Foreign Tnqe.	Brit. and Coasting Tnqe.	Foreign Trade. Tnqe.	Foreign Tnqe.	Brit. and Coasting Tnqe.		
1851..	5,387	2,150	95,677 ..	6,720	854	60,480 ..	9,568	34,356
1852..	6,599	7,146	110,305 ..	3,639	3,643	70,957 ..	8,256	36,632
1853..	10,542	7,541	91,089 ..	6,587	1,224	61,297 ..	8,508	37,619
1854..	6,281	6,605	83,673 ..	1,771	4,535	50,067 ..	8,567	35,361

The Foreign trade, therefore, for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 15,111 tons, and the British and Coasting 156,157 tons. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 21,027 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 181,262 tons: being an increase on the former year of 5,916 tons in the Foreign, and 25,105 tons in the British and Coasting trade. In 1853, the Foreign trade was 25,894 tons, and the British and Coasting 152,386 tons: being an increase on the Foreign trade of 4,867 tons, but on the British and Coasting there was a decrease of 28,876 tons. In 1854 the Foreign trade was 19,192 tons, and the British and Coasting 133,730 tons: leaving a decrease on the former of 6,702 tons, and on the latter of 18,656 tons, being a serious falling off in the Channel trade since 1852. There has been also a decrease in the registered tonnage since 1851 of 28 vessels and 1,001 tons, but an increase in the customs' revenue of £1,005. Notwithstanding the decrease in the registered shipping, it appears that two new iron steamers, one on the screw principle, have been put in the Liverpool trade by Mr. William Dargan, in whose name they are registered 29th April, 1853, and their net tonnage is 670 tons. The old company still continues the Fingal, 203 net tons, registered in G. MacTear's name: there are now trading to the port three steamers of 870 tons, and, including their engine rooms, must amount to 1,400 tons. With an additional steamer, it does not look well for their profitable employment to witness so serious a decrease in the tonnage of the port since 1852.

Newry Harbour, and its Improvements.—Formerly Newry was only considered a creek of Carlingford harbour, but during the

reign of William III. and that of his successor, grants were made to embank the river, and improve that portion of it in connexion with the town: it being also found inconvenient to its merchants, who principally used the custom-house of Carlingford to transact their business there, it was removed from thence to Newry in 1726, from which period that town progressed in trade and Carlingford declined. The imposts then on trade were so moderate, that the first year's collection of the customs' revenue of this port only amounted to £1,069 12s. The whole of Carlingford Lough, however, and more particularly that portion of it at and near Warrenpoint, may properly be called Newry harbour, where vessels of the largest tonnage can come opposite and ride in perfect safety in six fathoms water. But the river thence to Newry was so shallow, and the obstruction of rocks and mud so considerable, that after the canal from Lough Neagh to Newry had been completed in 1741, it was deemed expedient, as already shown under the head of Inland Navigation, to extend it to Fathom. But this cut was defective, as it only admitted vessels of a moderate draft of water; it has been therefore deepened and extended, and vessels drawing fifteen feet have water to the Albert Basin in Newry, which is five miles from the Lough. The toll exacted from vessels with cargo entering the canal inwards is one shilling per ton, and only one penny per ton outwards: for the year ending 5th April, 1846, they amounted to £4,059 4s. 1d., and in 1852, exceeded £5,000. Notwithstanding these improvements, and the additional accommodation they afford, Greenore point, near the bar of Carlingford, where, after it is passed, the water deepens rapidly, until it reaches upwards of sixty feet, is the spot that nature intended for a spacious dock, and a railway from thence to Newry would have been more serviceable to that town than even its canal.

The inhabitants of Newry have been shamefully treated by the proprietors or directors of the Dublin and Belfast Junction Railway. Of the possibility of bringing the line much nearer, if not into the town, there cannot be a doubt; but placed as it is, to have no station south of the town, where there are several points which approximate it more closely than Mullaglass, three or four miles further north, and more distant from the town, is an arrangement

that must have proceeded from sheer ignorance or intentional annoyance to its inhabitants.

The number of persons employed in collecting the customs' revenue here in 1849 was thirty-four, and the cost thereof £2,181 19s. 4d., being twice the number of persons employed at Dundalk, and three times the sum that a much larger amount of revenue was collected for there; and at Drogheda also, where the tonnage of the port is considerably more than that of Newry, the collection only costs £848 4s. 8d. Ship building was introduced by the late Mr. Francis Carvill, a gentleman of considerable enterprise, who built some splendid vessels here. Newry has produced some men of great mercantile capacity: among those who took the most prominent lead in commercial enterprise, and was most distinguished for his extensive knowledge of mercantile affairs, his sound judgment and superior intelligence, was the late Mr. Denis Caulfield: born in Newry, he early in life embarked in commercial pursuits, and from, 1790 to 1818, was one of the first merchants in Ireland. The extent of his transactions, his probity, his faithfulness in all his engagements, and the estimation in which he was held by foreign and English houses, tended materially to raise the town of Newry in the scale of commercial importance, and enabled himself to acquire a large property, which his nephews are now in the enjoyment of. In private life he was an instructive and agreeable companion; hospitable in the most unbounded sense of the word; his friendships were sincere and lasting, his enmities stern and inexorable. Possessed of a strong and vigorous mind, a quick comprehension, a firmness of purpose, and unwearied application to business, had he been a public man, he would have distinguished himself in politics as much as he certainly did in commerce.

The Public Buildings are—The Assembly Rooms; the News Room built in 1794, where formerly the Exchange was held, and which is now well furnished with newspapers and periodicals, and open to strangers even without the introduction of a subscriber; the Custom House, the Union Workhouse, Hospital, and the Infantry Barracks, which afford accommodation to forty-four officers and 1,100 soldiers, and an Hospital for forty patients. They were

originally built for a Linen Hall by a company who sold their interest in it to the government for £14,000, not more than one-half its cost; the Court House for the County Down district, and another Court House at Ballybot for that in Armagh; the Bridewells for both Counties, the New Savings Bank and Assembly Room on Sugar Island; the Butter Crane, where there is also a Flax Market, and the Corn Exchange.

The Houses of Religious Worship are—The Church of St. Patrick, on the most elevated part of High Street Hill, built by Sir Nicholas Bagnal in 1578, said to be the first Protestant church erected in Ireland for the service of that religion, those used previously for the purpose being catholic houses. This was formerly the parish church, but is now a chapel of ease to St. Mary's, which was erected in 1811, under an act of parliament that constituted it the parish church: it is a fine building in the gothic style, its spire is 190 feet high, and it cost £12,566 15s. 4d., exclusive of £2,469 4s. 7d. paid for the site, and the expense of obtaining an act of parliament authorising a tax of four-pence in the pound on houses, and nine-pence on lands for five years, which, with bequests from Mr. William Needham of £3,738, and £1,346 from Sir Trevor Corry, and subscriptions of £1,500 from Lord Kilmorey and General Needham, made up the required sum. The Catholic Cathedral of St. Patrick, also in Hill Street, is of the same style of architecture; its front cornices and battlements are composed of chiseled granite, and the other exterior parts of similar stone hammered, from a design by Mr. T. J. Duff, and bears a strong resemblance to the Dundalk edifice, of which it has probably been the model. There is also the old Catholic Chapel of St. Mary, erected by subscription in 1789, and another chapel attached to the Convent of the order of Poor Clares. There are four Presbyterian Churches, a Covenanting Meeting House, a Primitive Wesleyan, a Wesleyan, and Ebenezer Meeting Houses, and there has been recently erected in Hill Street a very handsome Unitarian House of Worship.

The Educational Institutions are—The National Schools both in the town and at Grinane; the Hibernian Society Schools; the

Catholic School in one of the towers of the Cathedral, where 100 poor children are educated; the School at the Convent of Poor Clares, where there are 300 girls in daily attendance, and sometimes 400, whose education is presided over by the sisters of the order, and about 100 of the poorest of the children receive a substantial breakfast at the Convent every morning; there is also a Work School for about fifty girls of sixteen years and upwards, who are taught plain and fancy needle-work, and the profits of their industry given to them. There is a School on the Lancasterian principle in Windsor Street; one in Chapel Street, which, independent of the grant from the National Board, has the interest of a bequest of £600 from Dr. Lennon, a former catholic bishop of Dro-more, who deposited this sum in the five per cents. to endow this school; there are also private schools in the town affording education to other portions of the juvenile population of both sexes.

The lighting, paving and cleansing the town is vested in twenty-one commissioners under the 9th Geo. IV., c. 82, and by the parliamentary return of 1853 the number of persons eligible to be elected to that office was 334, and to vote for same 1,065: of these there are 264 householders rated at £4, 142 at £8, 79 at £10, 122 at £12, and 458 at £15 and upwards. The value of property rated in 1853 was £25,917, and the rate levied £1,154. The Bank of Ireland, the Provincial Bank of Ireland, and Belfast Banking Company have branches here. The Savings Bank established in 1821 had 1,280 depositors in November, 1852, whose lodgments amounted to £32,399 11s. 6d., at the rate of £2 18s. 4d. per cent. There are two Constabulary Stations: one for the Rathfriland district, county Down, and the other at Ballybot for Armagh. The Union Workhouse is situated on a hill west of the town, and was built to accommodate 1,110 paupers: it was opened 13th December, 1841. The Union contains an area of 137,875 acres, and a population of 84,576 persons in 23 electoral divisions, represented by 31 elected and 10 *ex-officio* guardians, who meet on Saturdays: the property, valued under 6th & 7th William IV., c. 84, amounted to £127,752; and the expenditure for the year ending 29th September, 1852, £2,775 16s. 2d; and the rate in aid

contributed same year £646 11s. 10d. Extensive Water Works have been recently erected, which contribute much to the convenience and comfort of the inhabitants.

Leaving Newry by the ship canal, the Lough of Carlingford is again entered near Omeath; and, coasting along the northern shore, Warrenpoint, situated where the river Clanrye mingles its waters with those of the Bay, Rostrevor, with its enchanting scenery, the pretty village of Kilowen, and Greencastle, where the ruins of its ancient castle still seem to frown over the entrance to the Lough, are passed successively. The Bar is now recrossed, and after entering the Irish Sea, the first object that presents itself is the small town of Kilkeel, situated on the open shore, a short distance from the sea; proceeding still north, the Mourne mountains, with Slieve Donard towering in majestic grandeur over the group, present themselves to view. Newcastle, a modern watering-place, having some export trade, and Dundrum Castle, of great antiquity, with its dangerous bay—where the Great Britain steamer, whose timbers must have been as strong as iron, lay embedded for two winters, and, contrary to all expectation, was at length got off—are also passed, as well as Killough, a small seaport, with a good pier, a ship-building place, and having some export and import trade in grain, timber, and coal. About two miles further north is Ardglass, which at one time ranked in trade only second to Carrickfergus of all the Ulster ports; it subsequently dwindled into insignificance, but has again, in some degree, revived: it now exports cattle, corn, linen, flax, and butter. It is one of the ports considered by nautical men as adapted for the much-required harbour of refuge in the Irish Sea; and if free ingress and egress at all times of tide, and great depth of water, there being eighteen feet at low water within the harbour, are the necessary requisites, it certainly possesses these advantages; but there are other considerations, the most important of which is, that the harbour should be in a central position between Belfast Lough and Kingstown, which excludes it altogether, it being too far north, as Skerries is too much to the south, for the purpose. Circumstanced as it is at present, Ardglass is a safe harbour of refuge for that part of the

coast: there is a good pier and a light-house at its head, both erected chiefly at the expense of the late proprietor, Mr. Ogilvie. It is also the most extensive fishing station on the coast, employing nearly 4,000 tons of shipping, and 2,500 men and boys. Strangford Lough is next entered, and the port of that name, although included up to 1850 in the official return with Newry, is a separate maritime port, having a custom-house and exclusive revenue establishment, where not only its own business is transacted, but that of Downpatrick, Killough, Ardglass, and other neighbouring places.

STRANGFORD is most eligibly situated on the S. W. part of the Lough, near its entrance. It is 80 miles N. E. of Dublin, and 6 of Downpatrick. It consisted, in 1841, of 119 houses, and 583 inhabitants; in 1851 there were 130 houses, and 571 inhabitants; increase 11 houses, and a decrease of 12 persons. It is a small, handsome town, and is said to have derived its present name from the strong ford or current in the Channel to the Lough which separates it from Portaferry. This current is caused by the tide, which runs so strong in and out of the Lough, that vessels have been carried with it against the influence of wind and sails. John de Courcy early took possession of this town, and studded it round with no less than twenty-seven castles, four of which are still extant—Kilclief, Portaferry, Audley, and Walshestown Castles. Its exports consist of oats, meal, flour, kelp, linen, butter, cows, pigs, and horses; the imports are coals, iron, timber, bark, &c. In 1835 the former amounted to £79,633 6s. 4d., and the latter to £20,498 8s.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, are as follows:—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tnqe.	Customs' duties collected. £ s. d.
	Foreign Tnqe.	Trade. Foreign Tnqe.	Brit. and Coasting Tnqe.	Foreign Tnqe.	Trade. Foreign Tnqe.	Brit. and Coasting Tnqe.		
1851 ..	318	—	20,519 ..	408	—	9,400 ..	1,754	29 8 5
1852 ..	475	—	24,139 ..	318	—	9,968 ..	2,505	141 0 0
1853 ..	466	—	21,837 ..	331	—	8,678 ..	2,562	52 0 0
1854 ..	330	—	22,944 ..	330	—	6,762 ..	3,459	39 2 6

The Foreign trade of this port for the last four years consisted only of one or two vessels annually entering inwards and clearing outwards; last year there was only one. The British and Coasting trade for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 29,919 tons. In 1852 it was 34,107, being an increase on the former year of 4,188 tons. In 1853 it again declined to 30,515 tons, being a decrease of 3,592 tons on the tonnage of 1852. In 1854 it still further declined to 29,706, being a decrease of 809 tons, which arose from the limited tonnage outwards. In the registered shipping it is gratifying to find so great an increase in so small a port. In 1851 there were only 37 vessels of 1,754 tons belonging to the port; in 1854 they had increased to 53 and 3,459 tons, being an increase of 16 vessels of a larger size, and the tonnage nearly doubled in four years. The customs' duties also increased £9 14s. 1d. compared with 1851, but in 1852 they were £141. The number of persons employed in collecting the customs in 1849 was eleven, and the cost thereof £527 12s. 6d. There is a small quay, which is principally frequented by fishing vessels and boats, that convey passengers across the sound to Portaferry, which lies on the opposite side. The houses of religious worship are—the Protestant Chapel of Ease to Ballyculter Church, a Catholic Chapel, and a Methodist Meeting-House. There is also a School, at which two hundred children are educated. It is a police station; and there are fairs held on the 12th August and 8th November.

The Lough of Strangford, formerly called Lough Coyne, is seventeen miles in length from Killard Point to Newtown-Ardes, and in some places five miles in breadth. It contains four or five islands; some of them upwards of one hundred acres in extent, and in general are well cultivated. Some of the land in the country of the Ardes cannot be excelled in Ireland. Once entered, this harbour is deep and safe, but owing to the great rapidity of the tide, and the rocks near its entrance, it is not safe for vessels to attempt without a pilot. There are two passages to it, divided by a reef half a mile long, called Rock Angus, on the south side of which there is fifteen feet of water, and is the only channel navigable for merchant vessels.

Proceeding northwards from the Lough, Portaferry, Bally-

halbert, and Ballywalter, are passed in succession, and the ancient town of Donaghadee, so long the northern packet station for the mails between Great Britain and Ireland, *via* Portpatrick, on the Scottish shore, and where it is now intended to re-establish the communication by means of the submarine telegraph. About two miles from this harbour, and in the approach to Belfast Lough, near the south entrance, are the Copeland Islands: they are three in number, and are distinguished as the Copeland, Light-house or Cross Island, and Mew Island. About half way between Copeland, the largest of these, and the main land, is the Deputy rock, on which there is a buoy, and at the west end is the Katikern rock, which always shows above water. There is safe anchorage here, and in Chapel Bay, south of it, in two to three fathoms water, in all winds but the south-east. This is a dangerous locality, however, and in the approach to this magnificent harbour vessels not only trading with Belfast, but those bound to or coming from northern latitudes, trading with Liverpool and other English and Irish ports south of Belfast, must pass it, and it is the narrowest and most intricate part of the sea. The Deputy rock is particularly dangerous, and should be removed, cost what it may. The Belfast Harbour Commissioners are of opinion that, after the expenditure of nearly half a million in improving that harbour without receiving a shilling of public money by way of loan or grant, that now, when the light dues are consolidated under the control of the Board of Trade, and that there is a large surplus in favour of Ireland, £20,000 of which has been collected in the port of Belfast, it is only just and reasonable that a portion of it should be appropriated to the removal of this rock, and the improvement of Donaghadee sound. On the occasion of the Merchants' Shipping Bill being before the Legislature, Messrs. Davison and Cairns, members for Belfast, were instrumental in obtaining a modification thereof, by the extension of power to the Board of Trade, to remove impediments to navigation, which should now be exercised in improving this part of the Irish channel, which would not only be serviceable to the general trade thereof, but render Belfast Lough an important harbour of refuge, and, in this point of view, the outlay must be considered more of a national than a local benefit. Light-house

Island is about a mile from this, and comprises an area of twenty-four acres: the light-house, from which it takes its name, is a square tower 70 feet high, which displays a light to the south-east, to guide vessels from the North and South Rocks, about three leagues distant, and to the north-west, to guard them from the Maiden Rocks. The Light-house is situated in lat. $54^{\circ} 51' 15''$ N., and long. $5^{\circ} 31'$ W. The lights are plainly seen at Portpatrick, and even at the Mull of Galoway, ten leagues distant. Mew Island is only a quarter of a furlong from Light-house Island, and comprises about ten acres; it lies very low, and is extremely dangerous. In the sound between it and Copeland Island there is a flat rock called the Pladdens, on which there is only three feet of water; and the tide runs through it with great velocity, particularly near Mew Island. Some years ago the Ballast Board erected a fog bell on Light-house Island, to warn vessels of their approach to the Cope-lands; but the site selected is not considered the most eligible for the purpose, and the Belfast Harbour Commissioners, who should be the best judges of the matter, are of opinion that it should be placed on Mew Island, where the principal danger lies. Belfast Lough now presents itself, and is a noble arm of the sea, forming a safe and commodious harbour, well sheltered, and easy of access. Its entrance is about six miles across from a point between Groomsport and Ballyholm Bay on the county Down side and Whitehead on the Antrim coast, where there is from 50 to 70 feet of water, the average rise of spring tides being 10 feet 10 inches. In the Lough there is good anchorage ground composed of stiff blue clay in from 2 to 10 fathoms water; the width of the river is about 600 yards at low water, and the distance from the entrance to the town twelve miles. Two objects extremely interesting are situated on the margin of the Lough near the entrance: Carrickfergus on the Antrim, and Bangor on the Down side.

CARRICKFERGUS is a fortress of very ancient date, and holds a conspicuous place in the page of Irish history. It was early in the seventeenth century the most important place of trade in Ulster, and Belfast the most insignificant. Its commerce, however, has now merged into that of Belfast. The town derives its name from

Currig, a rock, and Fergus, an Irish king, who was lost in a storm off the coast three or four centuries anterior to our era. The Castle is said to have been erected by the Anglo-Norman chieftain John de Courcy, in the twelfth century. In 1315, Edward Bruce, who had previously landed at Larne with a Scotch force of 6,000 men, laid siege to this fortress, which was bravely defended by Thomas, Lord Mandeville, who, in a sortie, lost his life. Soon after the garrison agreed to deliver up the place on an appointed day, and thirty Scots having advanced before the main division into the town, the besieged, instead of surrendering, drew up the bridge and made them prisoners, declaring their intention of defending the place to the last extremity. On the arrival, however, of the celebrated Robert Bruce, with large reinforcements, some time after, the garrison surrendered to the Brother Kings. In the reign of Elizabeth it was an important stronghold in the English interest. In 1641 it was alternately in the hands of the English, Irish, and Scotch, and there are some frightful records of that period, too voluminous for insertion in this work. In 1689 William III. landed here, with a large force, preparatory to the battle of the Boyne. Commodore Thurot, the descendant of an Irishman of the name of Farrell, one of the officers in the army of James II., who, after the siege of Limerick, entered the French service, arrived off Carrickfergus in 1760, with three frigates, and seven or eight hundred men; the attack being quite unexpected, and the castle indifferently garrisoned, after an ineffectual resistance it surrendered. Thurot only held the place for a few days, having re-embarked his troops; and his squadron was subsequently captured off the Isle of Man, and himself killed during the action. The last scene connected with this fort was the action and capture of the Drake sloop of war in the roads by Paul Jones, in the American ship *Ranger*, 24th April, 1778. Some interesting remains of the ancient fortifications still exist, and the north gate is almost perfect. The present structure rises gradually to an elevation of thirty feet towards the sea, mounts twenty-five pieces of cannon, and is the most extensive dépôt for small arms in the north of Ireland: these are kept in a square tower in the upper yard ninety feet high. The mansion of the Marquis of Donegall was formerly a Franciscan Abbey, founded

A.D. 1232 by Hugh de Lacy, Earl of Ulster, and granted to Sir A. Chichester by James I. Carrickfergus was one of the few Irish Boroughs whose right to send a representative to the united parliament was recognised by the Act of Union—by the last parliamentary return it had a constituency of 1,195, of whom 806 were freemen.

BANGOR (county Down).—Its name is derived from *Banchor* or *Bane Choraidh* "the White Choir," and was originally called "the Vale of Angels," as well as "the City of the Saints." It was founded by St. Congall, A.D. 555, who established here an Abbey of regular Canons, whose fame for learning spread throughout Europe, and its School, over which St. Carthagus presided, became so celebrated, that students from all parts of the world resorted to it. When Alfred, the most renowned of all the Anglo-Saxon Kings, founded the University of Oxford, he procured the principal professors from this great seminary. Alfred, in his adversity, visited Ireland, and no doubt at this University, or that of Lismore, acquired those sound philosophical lessons which fitted him so admirably for governing, and to the introduction of whose laws and institutions England is so much indebted even to the present day. St. Columba and the arch-heresiarch Pelagius, were also educated here. The Danes despoiled and pillaged this place several times, and on one occasion, A.D. 823, massacred the Venerable Abbot and about 900 of the monks, the community then consisting of 3,000. The town is seated on a cove of Belfast Lough, and is a favourite retreat in summer, owing to its contiguity to Belfast, its pure atmosphere, strong clear sea water, and excellent bathing ground. Its trade is limited, but its cotton manufacture is considerable, there being two extensive cotton mills in full operation, and numbers of females, both here and in the neighbourhood, are employed in flowering and embroidering muslin for the Belfast and Glasgow houses.

BELFAST.

BELFAST is a handsome modern built seaport town, situated in the N. E. part of the island, on the river Lagan, which has its source in Sliabh Croob Mountain, in the centre of the county Down, and, taking an extensive circuit by Dromore, divides the counties of Down and Antrim in its course from the neighbourhood of Moira, to Belfast, where it discharges itself into the Lough. It is 102 statute miles north of Dublin, but by railway, *viâ* Portadown, it is 113. It lies in lat. $54^{\circ} 36' 8''$, long. $5^{\circ} 55' 53''$, and from its present commercial and manufacturing importance, may be well styled the capital of Ulster. It comprises an area of 1,872 acres, of which 1,296 are in Antrim, and 576, in Down; the latter being the suburb of Ballymacarret, which was formerly united to the town by a long narrow bridge of twenty-one arches, erected in 1682, but which has been recently replaced by a splendid new bridge of five arches, each 58 feet span and 9 feet 5 inches above high water: it is composed of granite, and called the Queen's bridge. There are also two other bridges, and two boat ferries over the Lagan. There is no town in Ireland, or indeed in the United Kingdom, that has risen so rapidly from comparative insignificance to vast importance as Belfast. In 1757 it contained only 1,779 houses, principally thatched with straw, and 8,549 inhabitants. In 1782 the houses were 2,026, and the population 13,105. In 1791 it was 18,320. In 1816 the houses were 5,578, and the inhabitants 30,720. In 1821 the population was 37,117. In 1831 it was 48,224. In 1834 it was 60,813: composed of 23,576 Presbyterians, 19,712 Catholics, 16,388 Protestants, and 1,137 of other religious persuasions. In

1841 and 1851 the population (including Ballymacarret) was as follows :—

Years.	HOUSES.			Total.	POPULATION.		
	Inhabited.	Uninhab.	Bldg.		Males.	Females.	Persons.
1841	10,906	1,916	63	11,885 ..	34,858	40,450	75,308
1851	13,806	1,131	72	15,009 ..	46,847	53,453	100,300

Being an increase on the ten years of 3,124 houses, 11,989 males, 13,003 females: total 24,992 persons; the females on the population of 1851 exceeding the males by 6,606, or 14 per cent. The parish contains 19,599 statute acres, and was anciently called Shankill, which signifies the Old Church; but there being no church there for two centuries, it is now designated the Parish of Belfast, in the diocese of Down and Connor. The living is in the gift of the Marquis of Donegall, who is the lay proprietor, and derives £950 a year out of a portion of it called the Upper Falls, £630 of which he reserves, and the remainder goes to the vicar, who has also a glebe house and twenty acres of land. The municipal wards are five in number—St. George's, St. Anne's, Dock, Smithfield, and Cromac, each of which returns two aldermen and 6 councillors; from the former the mayor is chosen annually. The old corporation was formed under a charter granted in 1613 by James I., which was confirmed by James II. and George II. The corporation was styled "the Sovereign, Free Burgesses, and Commonalty of the Borough of Belfast," and consisted of a sovereign lord of the castle, twelve other free burgesses, and an unlimited number of freemen, a town clerk, and two serjeants at mace. The sovereign was chosen annually by the free burgesses out of three of their body nominated by the lord of the castle, or in default of such nomination, a circumstance that of course never occurred, they might nominate as well as elect the sovereigns themselves. The lord of the castle was always a burgess by tenure of it, and the office was held by the Marquis of Donegall, in whose family it continued since the date of the charter. The freedom of the borough was only acquired by gift of the sovereign and burgesses, but during the memory of man there were no freemen. In fact, there could be no borough more close or corrupt, the whole elective and representative power being in the hands of the Marquis of Donegall. Posterity will stand amazed, when it reflects that the people of

Belfast, who have displayed so much energy, enterprise, and intelligence in all their other affairs, should have allowed their immediate political rights and privileges to be usurped so long without making more resolute and vigorous efforts to shake off the yoke, and assert their independence. The borough, or rather the Marquis of Donegall, returned two representatives to the Irish parliament from the date of its incorporation to the passing of the Legislative Union, after which it sent one to the United Parliament until its original number was restored, having obtained one of the five additional members distributed in Ireland under the Reform Act. The elective franchise was also extended to £10 householders, reserving a vote to each of the burgesses. The first constituency registered under this Act was 2,137; in 1849 it increased to 4,701. In 1851, under the 13th & 14th Vic., c. 69, it decreased to 2,697, and by the last parliamentary return furnished, 1852-3, of the number of electors in Ireland, the constituency of this borough had increased to 3,283, all rated occupiers; notwithstanding which, it was 1,418 less than the number it had under the Act of William IV. The present representatives of the borough are Richard Davison, Esq., a resident solicitor, who has been most zealous and active in promoting the improvement of Belfast, and Hugh MacCalmot Cairns, Esq., a barrister practising at Lincoln's Inn. The lighting, watching, and paving of the town is not regulated under the Act of 9th George IV., it having obtained a separate Act for that purpose, which vested the power in a police committee chosen by the town council, the average rates levied under it being about £9,000 per annum. The history of Belfast furnishes but few materials to record its fame or importance in the olden time, and even its origin and the derivation of its present name are involved in obscurity. In a map laid down in the thirteenth century it is named *Bealafarsad*, which is interpreted by some as Hurdlesford Town, and by others as the Mouth of the Pool. But it is more than probable that, even long after the Anglo-Norman invasion, nothing more than a few rude dwellings of ferrymen, or at most a village, existed where Belfast now stands. There is no account to be relied on, that even John de Courcy, who raised so many castles in Ulster, erected one here. The first historical notice taken of the town

is its destruction by Edward Bruce in 1316, and it is from this circumstance inferred that it must have been in the hands of the English. But although this is probable, it is no positive proof, as Feidlem O'Connor, King of Connaught, joined the Earl of Ulster in the outset with all his forces against Bruce, who signally defeated them both. It is supposed that it was after this event that the Castle of Belfast was built, as there is some account of its having been repaired by the Irish chiefs in the fifteenth century. But nothing of importance occurred until the reign of Henry VII., when Gerald, Earl of Kildare, made two incursions into Ulster: in 1503, and again in 1512, and on both occasions destroyed it with little or no opposition. It is probable that the Castle remained a considerable time after these events uninhabited, as in 1545 there is a record of the Earl of Ormond crossing the ford between Carrickfergus and Belfast, but there is no mention made of a town or castle, although one must have sprung up very soon after, as Sir James Croft repaired and garrisoned it in 1552; and the same year it was granted to Hugh MacNeill Oge, with other possessions, on his tendering his allegiance to Henry VIII. This chieftain, however, was slain in 1555 by a body of Scotch marauders. The sept of the O'Neills were allowed to keep possession of his other properties, but Lane, an Englishman, was placed in command of the castle, which, in a short time, again fell into the hands of the Irish. In the thirteenth year of Elizabeth it was granted, with several valuable tracts of land, to Sir Thomas Smith and his son, who were soon after forced to abandon it. In 1575 Sir Henry Sidney had some skirmishing with MacNeill Brian Ertaugh during Smith's possession of the castle. In 1582 Sir John Perrot established shipwrights at Belfast, influenced by the extensive forest then in its neighbourhood. Hugh O'Neill's successes about this period again placed Belfast in the hands of the Irish, and Carrickfergus was the only place in the northern part of Ulster which held out for the English. In 1612 Sir Arthur Chichester was Lord Deputy, and having required from Sir Thomas Smith the levies of horse and foot, the furnishing of which to assist the Deputy in Antrim constituted the conditions on which the castle and town of Belfast were granted to him, but not being responded to, these possessions were forfeited to the Crown. James, who had in 1610

made a grant of the Castle of Dungannon and 1,320 acres of land, and other escheated property of great value in the province of Ulster, to Sir Arthur Chichester, now conferred on him the castle, town, and manor of Belfast, with the title of Baron Chichester of Belfast. Two patents were granted by the Crown confirming him in all the properties, both lay and clerical, that he had taken possession of. One of these conveyed the Barony of Innishown, the Islands in Lough Swilly and Lough Foyle; the patronage, presentation, and advowson of all the rectories and vicarages in O'Dogherty's county; the Dungannon property, and several other manors adjoining it. The other consisted of the Belfast property, the territories of Tuoghnefall, Tuogmoylone, Tuogeinament, Carnemony, Carntall, and Monksland, with all the rectories therein, as well as that of Shankill; the entire fishing of the river Lagan; fourteen rectories in Antrim, and the Friary of Masseryne; the exclusive fishing of Lough Sidney, Lough Neagh, or Lough Chichester; and in the river Banne to the Salmon Leap, &c., &c. Arthur Chichester, who contrived to possess himself of these immense properties and immunities, without having fulfilled the conditions imposed upon the other undertakers, was the son of Sir John Chichester, of Raleigh in Devon. After spending some time at the university, he entered the army, and signalized himself by robbing the queen's purveyor—obliged to fly England for this offence, he joined the army of Henry IV. of France, where he served with courage and ability, and was knighted. On obtaining a pardon from Elizabeth he returned to England; but having lost *caste* by his misconduct, and being destitute of fortune, he repaired to Ireland, then the theatre for reckless and needy adventurers. After serving with reputation under Mountjoy, he succeeded Sir Henry Davis as sergeant-major of the English forces in 1602; was admitted a privy-councillor, and appointed governor of Carrickfergus Castle in 1603, and Lord Deputy in 1604. In this office he gained the king's favour by the spirit in which he applied himself to the Ulster plantation, and in assisting him in other acts of spoliation. He had witnessed, however, sufficient to convince him of the uncertain tenure of patents and grants from the Crown, and that what the king once gave he might easily take

back again. He therefore resolved on obtaining a specific Act of the legislature to ratify his title to the properties he had thus acquired. With the assistance and under the advice of his legal friend and adviser, Sir John Davis, a parliament was convened in 1613; and although he succeeded in obtaining an Act confirming the Ulster confiscations and grants, in which he was so vitally interested, yet, from the circumstances attending the assembling of this parliament, it would not have been difficult to prove the whole of its proceedings illegal. Presbyterianism was first established in the counties of Antrim and Down about the year 1611. Chichester neither encouraged it nor the Scotch settlers who professed it; those whom he imported in his character of undertaker were English Episcopalians, who were equally opposed to them. But notwithstanding the persecutions the Presbyterians endured as non-conformists, they gradually established themselves in Belfast, and were the most numerous portion of the population at the commencement of the civil war of 1641. Although they espoused the covenant, they were opposed to the fanaticism and extreme measures of the Puritans, a proof of which is to be found in their published declaration, denouncing, as abhorrent to their feelings, the decapitation of Charles I. This declaration elicited from the poet Milton an answer full of invective and bitter irony. He ridicules the idea of their calling themselves "Watchmen in Sion," and does not hesitate to call them "false prophets, unhallowed priestlings, egregious liars and impostors, blockish presbyters of Claneboy, who from their unchristian synagogue at Belfast, in a barbarous nook of Ireland, meant to stir up the people to rebellion, being ignorant of history sacred and profane, and in their generation Highland thieves and redshanks." This is language not very select for one so accustomed to the sublime. In the civil war of 1641, the Irish, under Sir Con Magennis, meditated an attack on Belfast, and subsequently under Sir Phelim O'Neill, but being repulsed at Lisburn, the town remained in the hands of Sir Arthur Tyringham and Colonel Chichester, who were well affected towards the royal cause; and in 1642, Robert Monroe, with 10,000 Scotch, favourable, as it was supposed, to the cause of Charles, but with a secret understanding to support the designs of the Parliament,

landed at Carrickfergus in April, 1642. A considerable detachment of these formed a junction with Lord Conway and Colonel Chichester, at Malone, near Belfast, and for some time agreed in their operations against the Irish; but the breach between Charles and the Parliament having now become an open rupture, Munroe declared for the latter, while Chichester, Conway, and other Protestant leaders, adhered to the king. Chichester was appointed, in 1643, Governor of Belfast, with a grant of £1,000 for better fortifying the town, and Munroe was invested by the parliament with the command of the English and Scotch in Ireland, and that all should receive the covenant, and submit to his authority. In 1644, Chichester issued a proclamation against the covenant, stigmatising all those who took it as traitors, but his men deserted him; and Munroe soon after, with 2,000 Scots, surprised and held the town for the parliament, who appointed Colonel Hume governor, with a stationary garrison of 400 men, for the maintenance of which the inhabitants were obliged to contribute each every ten days, 14 lbs. of meal, or one shilling in lieu thereof. In 1645, some disaffection appearing among the Scotch troops towards the parliament, commissioners were sent by that body to arrange the differences existing between the Scotch and English, and, as a preliminary step, Munroe was ordered to deliver up the town and castle, which he refused, and the commissioners directed that some troops should be sent from England to enforce their demand, which was accordingly complied with in 1646; but Munroe refused to admit them either into Belfast or Carrickfergus. A good understanding, however, must have prevailed about this period between Munroe and some portion of the English forces, as, in conjunction, they fought the battle of Benburb, near Armagh, against Owen Roe O'Neill, where they were signally defeated, with the loss of Lord Blayney and 3,243 men killed on the field of battle, and Lord Montgomery, with 22 officers and 122 men, made prisoners, Munroe himself with difficulty escaping the slaughter. In 1648, when the Scotch invaded England in support of royalty, Munroe and the remains of his forces in Ulster offered their services to the lord-lieutenant, and their hostility to the parliament being no longer concealed, Colonel Monk marched on

Carrickfergus, which he surprised, and sent Munroe a prisoner to England. Belfast was also obliged to surrender, and Colonel Maxwell was appointed governor by the parliament. The death of the king, which was most unpopular with even the most rigid covenanters, soon changed the aspect of affairs. The renewal of the covenant was universally demanded, which, it was insisted, that event had violated and broken. The province of Ulster now rose in arms against the parliamentarians, who were dispossessed of every place they had previously taken. Charles II. deputed Sir George Munroe, brother to Robert, to assume the command of his adherents in Ulster. After reducing Lisburn and Antrim he laid siege to Belfast, and Colonel Maxwell, aware of his inability to defend it, sent a pressing message to Lord Montgomery for assistance, who entered the town with a considerable force, which, to the governor's surprise, took possession of it for Charles II., Montgomery producing the king's commission appointing him General Governor of Ulster, and commanding Maxwell and the garrison to submit, to which they had no alternative. The Irish Presbyterians were now considerably embarrassed as to the course they should pursue: they had opposed the parliamentarians, who had refused the covenant; but they had as little confidence in the king, who was not only unpledged to it, but to any form of government whatever. Their doubts and indecision, however, were soon dispelled by the arrival of Cromwell, in 1649, with an imposing force. After storming Drogheda, he dispatched Colonel Venables with a division of his army, to reduce Belfast and the other northern towns with royalist garrisons. It was the fourth time in six years that this town was besieged, and the first in which it offered any material resistance; and even on the present occasion it capitulated four days after it was invested by Venables. It was in this neighbourhood, and about this period that the notorious Owen Connolly, who gave information of the meditated attack on Dublin Castle by the Irish leaders in 1641, was killed in a skirmish between a party of royalists under Sir George Munroe and a division of Cromwell's cavalry, in their way from Belfast to Antrim. Cromwell's successes had now completely broken the spirit of the royalists, and the country was obliged to yield once more to the

authority of the parliament. During the Commonwealth, nothing of importance occurred in Belfast, and at the Restoration several of the inhabitants pleaded the general pardon, who were by no means cordial in their support of the previous government. The accession of James II. in 1685 was not palatable to the inhabitants of Belfast, and they had some apprehension of an invasion of their chartered rights. James, however, granted the town a new charter, confirming that granted by James I., but increasing the corporate body from twelve to thirty-five burgesses, nineteen of those nominated being Catholics. The military in the service of the Crown quartered at Belfast were principally Catholics, who solicited the corporation, through the Lord Lieutenant, to be allowed the School-house or Town-house for the celebration of mass, which was refused. Although as an armed body they might have accommodated themselves without asking, their forbearance showed a respect for the civil power which was seldom reciprocated by their opponents under similar circumstances. The Protestants and Presbyterians now sank their mutual differences, and a project was formed to disarm the Catholic military quartered here, and take possession of Carrickfergus; but it proved abortive, in consequence of the defection of some of those most prominent in devising it—at the moment it was to have been carried into effect. An address, however, was subscribed to by the inhabitants, and messengers dispatched to the Prince of Orange, congratulating him on his arrival in England, and with a tender of their services in support of his designs on the throne. This address was acknowledged after William and Mary's accession. Belfast having declared for William, and the military in the service of James having withdrawn, the defence of the town was entrusted to Sir A. Rawdon; but a stratagem to surprise Carrickfergus having failed, and a considerable body of James's troops being directed against Belfast, he retired to Coleraine, the Irish army again taking possession of the town, which some writers say suffered seriously from plunder, while Leslie shows, that the government of James issued protections, and took such measures for the preservation of property, that the merchants on their return, many months after, found the goods they had left in such an uncertain state, safe and untouched. The

successful resistance of Derry, and the arrival of Schomberg at Bangor in August, 1689, with 10,000 men, again placed the town in the hands of William's adherents, and after the surrender of Carrickfergus, the whole army encamped within a mile of Belfast. From thence it marched south on that disastrous campaign, the remnant only returning, in the depth of winter, infected with a frightful disease contracted at Dundalk, which carried off in a few months 3,762 of the military located in the Belfast hospital, and a great number of the inhabitants also, to whom the infection had spread. William's army was, however, strengthened by reinforcements, which daily arrived from England during the spring of 1690, of which a considerable portion were Dutch and Danish cavalry, under the Prince of Wirtemberg, some of whom were quartered here. William arrived the 14th of June at Carrickfergus, and immediately proceeded to Belfast, where he was most cordially received by the corporate authorities, and by the inhabitants at large. Addresses were presented to him from the episcopal and presbyterian clergy, and after remaining five days, he proceeded to Lisburn, where Schomberg had fixed his head quarters. Previous to his departure, he issued an order to the collector of customs to pay the Presbyterian clergy £1,200 a year, which laid the foundation of the *Regium Donum*. The military or warlike character of the town closed with these events, and the inhabitants were enabled to direct their attention to the establishing of manufactures, and the extension of the commerce of the port, which has gone on gradually increasing, until it has now reached the enviable position of being one of the first towns in the United Kingdom. It is not to be inferred that, in cultivating the arts of peace, there was any diminution of the public spirit and independence of the inhabitants; on the contrary, with the extension of their trade, their intelligence and devotion to the cause of civil and religious liberty kept pace. In 1696, printing was introduced, which must have given a zest to literary attainments, and may have led to its being subsequently called the "Athens of Ireland." In 1708 the castle was destroyed by an accidental fire, and has not been since rebuilt. About this period the Sovereign of Belfast was summoned before the House of Commons, charged by Lady Donegall with

permitting Dissenters to fill corporate offices in the borough, without subscribing to the Test Act, of which he was satisfactorily acquitted by the House. Another extraordinary charge was brought against the Presbyterians, that they had monopolized the trade of the port, which, however, was refuted by a declaration of eighty of the principal Protestant inhabitants of the town. In 1715, and again in 1745, on the news of the invasion by the Pretender, the inhabitants formed themselves into a volunteer corps; and, apprehensive of an attack on Carrickfergus by a Scotch Highland force, they marched to that town, and did duty there until the alarm had subsided. In 1757, the Antrim Patriot Club was formed, of which several of the leading members were inhabitants of Belfast. Thurot's descent on Carrickfergus three years after, had nearly afforded them an opportunity of displaying their courage as well as their loyalty. He, however, abandoned the place after holding it for a week, and levying contributions of wine, spirits, and provisions from the inhabitants of Belfast, who furnished them, although there was a volunteer force in the town of 5,352 men, lest he should put his threat in execution of burning Carrickfergus. In 1771, the leases of one of the Marquis of Donegall's estates in Antrim having expired, large fines to the landlord and fees to the agent were demanded on their renewal. The tenants in general, unable to comply, were ejected from their farms, and others placed in them, which so enraged the original occupiers, that they committed numerous outrages on the lands and cattle of the new tenants, and formed themselves into an association called the "Hearts of Steel." One of these having been arrested on a charge of felony in Belfast, was sent to the barracks pending his transmission to the county gaol. The discontented peasantry, however, armed with various offensive weapons, assembled in thousands to rescue him. They attacked the barracks, burned a house, and would have proceeded to other acts of violence had not the prisoner been released. The effects of this agrarian insurrection, which extended to the adjoining counties, seriously affected the welfare of the province of Ulster, and was instrumental in extending liberty to the whole human race. Thousands of men, driven from their holdings, dissatisfied with the country, and

expressing the deepest resentment against the Irish landlords, emigrated to America. Arriving there at a critical moment, and actuated by their wrongs, they joined the armies of Washington, then contending for independence, and contributed, by their numbers as well as by their courage and conduct, to separate the United States from the British Crown. The emigration to America during the years 1771, 1772, and 1773 from the north of Ireland exceeded all former precedent. The emigrants were chiefly farmers and manufacturers, who, by converting their property into specie, which they took with them abroad, it was calculated deprived Ulster of one-fourth of its circulating medium, which then consisted altogether of specie; and also a portion equal thereto of the most valuable part of its population. From Belfast there sailed with emigrants in these three years, 30 ships of 7,800 tons, from Londonderry 36, of 10,350 tons; and from Newry 22, of 6,950 tons: total 25,100 tons, which most likely the number of passengers amounted to. The successes of the American colonists in their struggle for independence were hailed by the inhabitants of Belfast with every demonstration of joy; and many of those who had so recently invoked "the glorious and immortal memory of William III.," "The Boyne Water," and "Protestant Ascendancy all over the World," were now loud in their praise of Franklin, Paine, and Washington. In 1778, when a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive against England, was formed between France and the United States; the inhabitants justly feared that not only the trade of Belfast, but the surrounding coast, would be exposed to the ravages of these powerful enemies. The facility with which it could be accomplished had been already proved on a small scale a few years previously by Thurot, and more recently by Paul Jones, who entered and captured a British sloop of war at anchor in their bay. They therefore assembled and petitioned government for a garrison, and received for answer, that half a troop of dismounted cavalry, and half a company of armed invalids had been ordered to occupy the town. The government having thus proved its inability to defend them, the inhabitants undertook to defend themselves. Those who were willing and able to bear arms, enrolled themselves in the volunteer corps, and fit persons were appointed to exercise

and discipline them. Other towns, and the country at large, followed the example of Belfast, and the government at the onset encouraged the movement by distributing among them 16,000 stand of arms. The English cabinet early foresaw the danger of allowing armed associations of this kind to become general throughout the country, and remonstrated with the Irish government against it; but the latter was too feeble to control this national movement. It had also been instrumental in creating it, by misappropriating the revenues that should have been reserved for the defence of the country. Neither government possessed a force adequate to the purpose, and they were, therefore, obliged to acquiesce in the measures of defence taken by the people. In the mean time the volunteers continued to increase in number, and rise in public estimation, until they amounted to 90,000 men; and they were ultimately enabled to dictate to the government and the parliament the measures necessary to restore the country to free trade, and the parliament to legislative independence. They insisted on Ireland obtaining an equal degree of liberty, and similar institutions to those of Great Britain—that the connexion between the two countries should be held inviolable, but that no power on earth, except the king, lords and commons of Ireland, was competent to make laws to bind the people of that country, and they publicly avowed their determination not to obey or countenance any laws otherwise enacted, and to support with their lives and fortunes the rights and privileges of the king, lords, and commons of Ireland. When language such as this was used by such leaders as the Duke of Leinster and the Earl of Charlemont, by Grattan and Flood, and other distinguished members of both houses of parliament, the result of the movement was no longer doubtful. Early in 1779, when a descent of a French force on the coast was daily expected, the Belfast volunteers mustered 340, formed into three companies, well armed and disciplined, and the total number in Down and Antrim at the same time amounted to 4,000. The sovereign, burgesses, and inhabitants of Belfast were early in declaring their right to the privilege of free trade. The town had the merit of being the first in Ireland to form a volunteer association; and some of the staunchest patriots connected with the cause

were inhabitants thereof. It was therefore held in the highest estimation by the leaders of the movement, as well as by the volunteers at large. Several imposing reviews were, consequently, held in the neighbourhood: the first on the 12th July, 1780, when 1,400 volunteers appeared on the ground, and went through various evolutions, in the presence of Lord Charlemont and 30,000 delighted spectators. Another took place the following year in the Falls meadows, where upwards of 5,000 volunteers occupied the ground, among whom were some of the most distinguished characters of the last century. In 1783 an encamped review took place; and during the existence of the volunteers, they were held annually, every succeeding review being remarkable for the increased military spirit and discipline of these distinguished corps. During the progress of these events, Ireland successively obtained free trade, a repeal of the Poynings' law, and the 6th of George I., and consequently a relinquishment of the assumed right of the British parliament and privy council to interfere in the acts or proceedings of the Irish legislature; the extension of the Habeas Corpus Act to Ireland for the first time; the repeal of the Mutiny Act, and the substitution of a new one, with a declaration of rights—the first relaxation of the penal code against the Catholics, and other measures of reform, so ample as to satisfy Grattan, who had obtained a grant from parliament of £50,000 as an acknowledgment of his services. Not so, however, other leaders of the volunteers, who clearly saw that these reforms would prove but temporary as long as the seeds of the former corruption remained in the system. The aristocracy and landed proprietors still exercised unlimited control over the county constituencies, as well as in the boroughs, which they had in a great measure deprived of their franchises, as well as of their properties; and the members returned to the regenerated parliament were as anxious to renew the corrupt practices with the government as their predecessors had been, which had proved so beneficial to themselves, and disastrous to the country. With few exceptions, the liberal party concurred in holding the immediate reform of the House of Commons indispensable, if the late concessions were to be rendered available or beneficial to the country. The inhabitants of Belfast,

and the volunteers of that town and neighbourhood, adopted these opinions, and supported them with superior spirit and intelligence. Public meetings were held, and petitions forwarded to the legislature, demanding an extensive measure of parliamentary reform; but although a convention was held in Dublin, at which delegates from all the volunteer corps in Ireland attended during the discussion of the measure in 1783, it was rejected by the Commons: and the disunion and differences which had previously set in among the leaders of the volunteers still further increasing, all hopes of obtaining reform through their exertions, or by means of the legislature, were abandoned. The great majority of the volunteers, and none more so than those of Belfast, still adhered to the cause of reform, and anxiously waited the march of events to practically demonstrate their devotion to it. The establishing of a free republic by the colonists of North America, and the destruction of the Bastille by the French people in 1789, infused a spirit of democracy into Belfast, which was considered by Lord Charlemont and other late leaders of the volunteers as extremely dangerous to the existing institutions of the country. The Northern Whig Club was, therefore, established in 1790, to suppress or restrain these extreme opinions, which were rapidly taking root in the town. Lord Charlemont, and the other aristocratic leaders of the volunteers, had now, however, lost their influence, and on the occasion of the anniversary, in 1791, of the taking of the Bastille, the volunteers and inhabitants formed a procession, which marched through the town, bearing portraits of Mirabeau and Franklin, with mottoes and emblems of a similar kind, and expressing by their words and actions the most excessive joy and sympathy with the French people. An address was also unanimously agreed to and forwarded to the National Assembly, congratulating it on the great events it had accomplished in the cause of civil and religious liberty, and the regeneration of France. Some of the passages ran thus—"It is good for human nature that the grass now grows where the Bastille once stood. And we rejoice at an event which seemed the breaking of a charm that held universal France in a Bastille of civil and religious bondage. We, too, have a country, and we hold it very dear; so dear to us its interest, that we wish

all civil and religious intolerance annihilated in this land ; so dear to us its honour, that we wish an eternal stop to the traffic of public liberty, which is bought by one and sold by another ; so dear to us is freedom, that we wish for nothing so much as real representation of the national will, the surest guide and guardian of national happiness." This address was answered by the Nantes and Bourdeaux Societies in a tone equally nervous and elevated, and alluded particularly to the Volunteer Association to prove what armed citizens could accomplish. After the annual review in July, 1792, the French Revolution was again celebrated with similar demonstrations of enthusiasm—one of the flags prepared to be carried on this occasion was an insulting representation of the Dutch, whom it was alleged had engaged in the conspiracy of tyrants against the liberties of man. They were represented by a piece of coarse woollen cloth attached to a pole, with a flag bearing an inscription "Heavens! how unlike their Belgian sires of old!" which was to be hooted by the populace ; but no man could be found to bear the ignominious burthen. Another, borne by the people of Carnmoney and Templepatrick, was inscribed with " Our Gallic Brother was born 14th July, 1789. Alas! We are still in embryo ;" on the other side—" Superstitious Jealousy the Cause of the Irish Bastile, let us unite and destroy it." The flag that represented Dr. Franklin had for its motto, " Where Liberty is there is my Country." The multitude which attended this procession far exceeded any that had ever been witnessed in the town. Another address was adopted to the National Assembly, and one to the People of Ireland, declaring their attachment to the great cause of parliamentary reform, and repudiating the idea that religious opinions should be productive of political inequality. The town of Belfast evinced an early disposition to effect a reconciliation, and form a permanent and friendly coalition with the Catholics, that by their united exertions they might be able to accomplish these great measures of reform in which they were so vitally interested. Petitions were forwarded to parliament, urging the propriety and policy of granting the Catholic emancipation. But the Irish House of Commons this year, 1792, rejected their claims by a majority of 208 to 23. About this period meetings of the

volunteers and other inhabitants of Belfast attached to liberal institutions, were very general, and the first plan of the United Irish Society was promulgated in Belfast in 1791. In March, 1793, the Secret Committee of the House of Lords reported that a tumultuary spirit had been widely diffused in Belfast and the adjoining counties, kept alive by seditious pamphlets, and private military machinations, and that secret societies, of which there were several mentioned as existing in the town, instituted for the purpose of procuring subscriptions for purposes concealed from the knowledge of the government, were considered to be at variance with the existence of public tranquillity,—that arms and gunpowder had been collected in large quantities, and bodies of men exercised by night and day; and that although the declared object was a redress of grievances, the real intention was to overawe the government and the parliament. A proclamation was issued the same month by the Lord Lieutenant dissolving the volunteers, and forbidding the raising of other armed associations, or that bodies of men should appear, either in Belfast or elsewhere, in military array. The Association, however, of United Irishmen continued to make rapid progress in the town, notwithstanding the arrests and prohibition of the government, and the large military force quartered there, which took every opportunity of annoying the inhabitants. Military riots and excesses were frequent, and the popular signs of some of the houses of entertainment, such as Dumourier, Franklin, and Mirabeau, were demolished. Towards the end of 1793 there were four Societies of United Irishmen in the town, nor did they take any precaution to conceal their numbers or the objects they had in view. In 1794 several additional societies were formed. On the removal of Earl Fitzwilliam on the 28th March, 1795, the day was observed as one of national calamity, the shops and counting-houses being all kept closed. But with this event the Societies of the United Irishmen increased in the counties of Down and Antrim, and on the 10th May, 1795, delegates from 72 of these associations met in Belfast, and framed that extensive system of committees, so ingenious and effective, and which organized a tremendous power by the most secret and certain means of rendering it available. The total force enrolled under

this system in Ulster was 95,973 men, of which 45,808 were inhabitants of Belfast, or the adjoining counties of Down and Antrim. Their arms only amounted to 6,346 guns, 2,356 bayonets, 3,816 pikes, 456 pistols, 18 blunderbusses, and 8 cannon; their funds were trifling, only £144 2s. 1d. In Leinster the number was 70,733, and their funds £1,485 4s. 9d. In 1797 numerous arrests were made in Belfast of individuals charged with high treason, and the office of *The Northern Star* newspaper was attacked by a party of soldiers, who destroyed the type and demolished the house, without the slightest satisfaction being given to the proprietors. On the French fleet arriving at Bantry Bay, in December, 1796, a great number of the inhabitants agreed to arm as yeomen in defence of the country, but many more refused to co-operate without first receiving some satisfaction in respect to those political principles for which they continued both openly and secretly to contend. During these operations some Orange and Masonic lodges took an opportunity of disclaiming all connexion with the "United Irishmen," and published their determination of "upholding the king and constitution." In May, 1798, martial law was proclaimed, and four companies of yeomanry commenced doing duty in the town; the brass field pieces belonging to the volunteers were delivered to General Nugent, except one, which was captured subsequently at the battle of Antrim. The battle of Ballynahinch, in which some of the Belfast volunteers took part, was fought on the 12th and 13th June, 1798: the shops and places of business were closed during the action, and the cannonading was distinctly heard in the town. Arrests still continued, and many of those charged with participating in the insurrection, were shipped to Fort George, in Scotland; but seven persons were executed—one of them wantonly as late as May, 1799, when it was totally suppressed. The Marquis of Cornwallis visited Belfast in October, and was presented by the sovereign and burgesses with an address in favour of the legislative Union, although it was a measure unpopular with the great body of the inhabitants. The history of Belfast since that disastrous period, although devoid of military operations, or great political events, will be found most instructive and interesting in the rapid progress it has made in all the arts of peace: the improvement of

the town and harbour, the extension of its commerce, the increase and prosperity of its manufactures. Nor is the public spirit, or political independence, which distinguished the inhabitants of Belfast in the palmy days of the Irish volunteers extinct: in no town in Ireland has the cause of civil and religious liberty more steadfast and enlightened supporters. The more immediate history of the town will in some degree be found in the account of the Harbour Improvements, which are here given in detail.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.—*Harbour Improvements, &c.*—The trade of Belfast was as insignificant as the town up to the beginning of the eighteenth century, and Carrickfergus stood in the same degree of importance relative to it as Carlingford did in respect to Newry. It is not, therefore, surprising to find the Earl of Strafford, in 1637, purchasing from the corporation, of that stronghold one-third of the customs' revenue and other monopolies of that port. This circumstance was rather favourable to the trade of Belfast, where a custom-house was established for the first time, and the revenue business of the port removed from Carrickfergus. In 1729, an Act, 3rd George II., appointed the sovereign and free burgesses conservators of the harbour, on the principle "that the harbour had become shallow, prolonging voyages to the great prejudice of trade, and His Majesty put to more expense in keeping officers on board the vessels so detained, than when it was in its former condition." This Act was repealed by the 25th George III., which appointed a separate corporation in 1785 to manage the affairs of the harbour, from which period may be dated the dawn of its improvement. This corporation removed several artificial fords, and deepened the bed of the river. In 1791 a platform was erected, and two graving docks commenced, one of which was opened in 1800, but the other not until 1826. The Marquis of Donegall also proposed constructing wet and dry docks at his own expense, if the corporation would deepen the river;—but no steps were taken to effect these objects. In 1795 a lease was obtained of the ground occupied by the graving docks; and up to 1814 the corporation expended on it, and in the construction of one of the docks, £13,500. About this

period the rapid extension of the trade of the port rendered increased accommodation imperative; and Mr. Killally reported to the Commissioners of Customs two plans for the improvement of the harbour, one to cost £99,690, and the other £122,600; these comprehended a ship canal to be made between the town and the mile-water reach, so that vessels of 400 tons could come up to the quays. In 1815 Sir John Rennie inspected the harbour, and made a report to Sir Robert Peel, then Irish Secretary, and again in 1821 to the Lords of the Treasury; the first estimated the expense at £531,680, and the latter at £259,450, including the purchase of ground, and the cost of building a new custom-house. In 1826 he submitted three plans, estimating the cost (exclusive of the custom-house) at £131,674, £134,660, and £269,547. In 1829 Mr. Telford prepared a plan, the estimate of which was £404,310. The improvement of the port up to this period was retarded by two obstacles;—firstly, the Marquis of Donegall and family, in whom was the fee of the property of the town and neighbourhood, were opposed to any improvements by the corporation, asserting their exclusive right to form the contemplated harbour; secondly, the government, whose interference was approved of by the inhabitants, held the matter for a considerable time in suspense, without coming to any definite conclusion, it now, however, abandoned the undertaking altogether; and the corporation having obtained copies of the reports and estimates in the possession of government, the amount of these prepared by Messrs. Rennie and Telford particularly alarmed the inhabitants, and a strong remonstrance was sent in from the leading merchants against them—at the same time the necessity was urged of recourse being had to some moderate plan of improvement, giving a less circuitous and a deeper channel. This led to another report from Sir John Rennie, whose estimate now amounted to £369,982; this, and all the other estimates, being exclusive of the amount of property to be purchased. About this period a plan, prepared by Messrs. Walker and Burgess, was adopted by the corporation, and an Act, the 1st and 2nd of William IV., cap. 55, passed (the 23rd August, 1831,) giving the necessary powers to carry into effect the long-desired improvement of Belfast Harbour. These consisted of deepening

the river from Garmoyle to the buoy of the flats near the mouth of the Seal Channel, and to make a new cut for its course from that point in the direction of the old north channel, and deepen it up to the mile-water perch, and form a straight cut from thence to the end of the ballast-bank reach, to be 12 feet deep at low water throughout—to form a recess 15 feet deep at low water, in which a few vessels could be moored—and to construct an entrance dock 1,200 by 400 feet, being an area of 11 acres, with quays 3,100 feet long, by 200 feet wide, the surrounding road to be 60 feet wide—and to cost £180,000. Another plan was submitted by them at same time, which was to straighten and deepen the river from Garmoyle to near the mile-water, this being common to both plans—to form a canal from thence, 250 feet wide and 12 feet deep at low water, to the proposed dock, a length of 400 feet—the entrance to be widened, and the depth of water to be 15 feet, forming a kind of tide basin in which vessels might safely ride—to construct an entrance-dock same as in first plan, and to make a wet dock 1,400 by 400 feet, being an area of 13 acres, with quays 3,500 feet long by 200 feet wide, the road and depth of water to be the same as in the first instance—the estimated expense to be £157,000, and with other additions would amount to £210,000. On the new corporation coming into office in 1831, a balance of £19,431 13s. 5½d. passed from the old corporation of 1785 to it, and a government order, dated 4th December, 1828, discharged that body from its responsibility for a deficiency by the then ballast-master of £3,178 0s. 2½d. unaccounted for. In 1832, the corporation applied to the Board of Works for a loan of public money to enable it to proceed with one of Messrs. Walker's plans, but Mr. Halpin reported unfavourably of them, and approved of the plans prepared by Messrs. Rennie and Telford, and the consequence was that the intended improvements were suspended for some time. In September, 1834, Mr. Wodehouse, then resident engineer, made a report, and drew up a modified plan and estimate for a new cut from Dunbar's dock to the mile-water perch, to cost £30,053. In October he made a further report, keeping within £35,000, the largest sum the Board of Works would undertake to advance, and even that was suspended by an order of the Treasury, until an

engineer of experience had reported on the subject. Mr. Cubitt, at the instance of the Board of Works, reported in May, 1835, that he considered Messrs. Rennie and Telford's estimates too large, and did not approve of the loan of £35,000 to carry into effect a portion of Messrs. Walker's plan, although he drew up two plans of his own, approving of it, combined with docks to be constructed on the river, circumstanced as it then was—one to cost £150,000, the other £125,000. In 1837, the corporation applied for a new Act, and for the sake of unanimity, abandoned Messrs. Walker's plan, and adopted Mr. Cubitt's; but the bill founded on it was opposed by the present Marquis of Donegall, (then Lord Belfast,) who introduced another bill on Messrs. Walker's plan. The Corporation Bill, after having progressed through several stages in the House of Commons was withdrawn, Mr. Cubitt having expressed doubts as to the eligibility of his plan; and Messrs. Walker's was again substituted, the bill of the opposing parties being withdrawn on the payment of £2,750 costs. This arrangement produced the Act 1st Victoria, cap. 76, (30th June, 1837,) and the corporation for preserving and improving the Port of Belfast received its authority therefrom. The works ordered to be executed were—to form a new channel from the river Lagan at Dunbar's Dock to Thompson's Tower, thus cutting off the first bend of the river; the power to purchase the then existing quays and docks, either by agreement with the owners, or by the valuations of a jury, and widening and otherwise improving the same; to continue the straight cut, if deemed necessary, as far as deep water, thus cutting off the second bend of the river, and effecting a straight channel to Garmoyle. At the same time, it was prohibited from applying the funds at its disposal to any other object, until the new channel was formed, and that accomplished, the purchase of all the quays from the long bridge round, was directed, but that neither quays, docks, or land, for the purpose of forming them, should be purchased, or any other act done to prejudice the then existing quays. The improvements that were commenced in 1839 soon absorbed the surplus revenue of the corporation; and it then negotiated a loan with the Board of Works to the amount of £15,000. Impediments, however, were thrown in the way even of a limited ex-

penditure by this department, and it doled out in the most stingy and unsatisfactory manner this comparatively trifling sum. The corporation finding that it could neither obtain the necessary funds in that quarter, or in any other, as long as the government had the first security on the works, determined on getting rid of the incubus altogether, and the loan was paid off with interest in 1841, with another small one obtained from the Belfast Banking Company. The corporation now commenced borrowing on bonds, secured by the acquired property and the revenues of the port. And that which neither the Treasury, nor the great English capitalists were disposed to advance, was easily obtained at home. Even that portion of the Irish public who had money to invest in moderate sums accepted these securities with avidity, affording further proof that the introduction of foreign capital into Ireland is not so absolutely necessary to its prosperity as some have supposed it to be. Up to December, 1845, a sum had been thus raised, amounting to £155,470, and there was expended in the purchase of property alone £156,217. The first section of the new cut, which cost £42,464 16s. 9d., a sum solely derived from the current revenue of the port, was opened in 1841; and in course of its formation, the valuable property, the Queen's Island, containing seventeen acres of land, was created out of the material raised from thence. This island has been tastefully planted, and appropriated as a pleasure ground for the recreation of the inhabitants. A resident engineer was appointed in 1839, to direct the operation of these and the other contemplated works at a salary of £500 a year. In 1841, rates on goods were first levied, at the instance of the Board of Works; which also insisted that an additional charge of 2d. per ton should be exacted on tonnage. In 1842, the old quays on both sides of the river, including Dunbar's Docks, timber pond, and nineteen acres of ground, the site of future docks, were purchased for £152,171 0s. 2d., so that quaysage from that period became an important item of income. In 1843, the levy by the corporation was £13,506 14s. 11d.; and by individual proprietors of quays, £5,915 5s. 6d. In 1844, the corporation, having obtained possession of all the old quays and docks, proceeded to provide ample accommodation for the trade, by the creation of new

quays. In Antrim, 713 feet of quayage was constructed, and 662 feet repaired. In Down a new quay, 2,400 feet long, was formed, and the river in front widened and deepened, which, with other improvements connected therewith, cost £40,853 8s. 1d. A new scale of imposts was now formed by the corporation, which, calculated on the rate of charge and extent of trade and tonnage for the year 1843, would show a reduction of £5,381 16s. 2d. Sand-ballast, which had been previously lowered from 2s. to 1s. 4d., was now further reduced to 10d per ton. Tonnage dues on Irish coasters were reduced one-half. Quayage on ships considerably abated, and one uniform charge adopted, which, being levied on the inward entry of the ship, dispensed with numerous and expensive collectors. Quayage on goods, and profits on pilotage, both serious in amount, the latter in 1843 having produced £2,117 9s. 8d., were remitted. The result justified the course adopted. From the 1st October to 31st December, 1844, by these reductions trade was relieved to the amount of £3,265 13s. 2d., as compared with that which the former rate would have produced. The tonnage, which in 1843 was 363,038 tons, rose in 1846 to 543,862 tons—of this the tonnage of Irish coasters in 1843 was only 6,075 tons, but increased in 1846 to 11,663 tons; and the rate on goods which was not charged in the same period would have been £5,661 4s. 6d., as compared with £3,999 0s. 11d. received in 1843, demonstrating an increase of goods very little short of tonnage. The corporation appointed under the Act of 1837 had great obstacles to encounter in the arduous task entrusted to its management, and Belfast owes it a large debt of gratitude, for the ingenuity, perseverance, and judgment it displayed in overcoming them. One of its first and most sagacious resolutions was to accommodate trade before it would tax it; for it appeared unjust to burthen property so fluctuating and so little durable as shipping with the cost of prospective improvements. It is, however, to be regretted, that this consideration, and the necessity of restoring the quays with as little delay as possible, should have been the cause of substituting wood for stone in front thereof, contrary to the original intention. It is a remarkable fact, that while an expenditure of upwards of £240,000 was made under the Act of 1837, the taxation on shipping was reduced below the rate charged

previous thereto. The rapid growth of trade, however, and the great inconvenience already experienced, indicated the necessity of timely providing ample accommodation for it. Accordingly, application was made to Parliament, and the Act of the 1st Vic. c. 76, under which the affairs of the harbour had been so admirably managed for ten years, was now repealed, and its place supplied by one more adapted to the existing circumstances of the trust, which received the royal assent 21st June, 1847. Under this Act, 10th Vic. c. 16, three honorary members, and fifteen others to be elected, were to form a board, by the name of the Belfast Harbour Commissioners; five of the latter to vacate in rotation the first Thursday in February every year, and to be filled up by a new election: to qualify a Commissioner he must reside within seven miles of the town, be owner of 100 tons of shipping for six months, or be possessed of £300 per annum freehold, or £5,000 chattel property, or pay £4 police tax which defines the property; this board consisted of the Marquis Donegall, president, Rev. Lord Edward Chichester, and the Mayor of Belfast, honorary members; Robert Boyd, John Clarke, Robert McDowell, John Dunn, David Grainger, Robert Grimshaw, John Harrison, Robert Henderson, James Heron, Hugh Magill, William Pirrie, George McTear, Samuel Thomson, William Valentine, and Valentine Whitla, Esqrs., were elected members; and Edmund Getty, Esq., whose family was long connected with the commerce of the port, and whose talents and experience eminently qualified him for the situation, was re-appointed secretary. When the Harbour Commissioners came into authority under the Act of 1847, various improvements, which had been commenced by the late corporation, were in a state of progress, and have been since finished. A new timber pond, on an extensive scale, which cost £1,878 0s. 4d.; a patent slip, capable of receiving vessels of 1,000 tons burthen, cost £16,455 3s. 4d., were constructed on Queen's Island; and since the opening of the latter, vessels of considerable tonnage have been repaired there. A lighthouse was erected at Holywood bank, at an expense of £1,300, independent of which, a strong white light is exhibited at the N. W. bank of the Victoria Channel, and a red light in the bight immediately below it. The second section of the Victoria Channel

was completed at an expense of £42,701 4s. 1d., thus rendering the river a straight line, having a depth of ten feet at low water, and 21 feet at high water, spring tides throughout, from Garmoyle to Belfast quays, being a distance of three miles. A sum of £65,456 15s. 9d. was also expended on the quays on the Antrim side of the harbour. The Commissioners now made good the purchases from the Cavehill Railway Company and from Mrs. Elizabeth May, for £13,500. By these purchases they obtained the entire possession of all the reclaimed land between Dunbar's late ground and the mile-water river, the Cavehill Company having surrendered the right of forming quays on that stream. In addition to the works already enumerated, the old timber pond adjoining Prince's Dock has been so improved that the timber therein is always afloat. The tidal docks at the foot of Waring Street and St. George's Street, have been filled up, and the spaces they occupied, with the site of one formerly in High Street, are to remain open for the use of the public generally. The whole space of the river, from the Bridge to Prince's Dock, has been considerably widened, and the depth of water increased five to seven feet. During 1849, 272,367 tons of sand and mud were dredged in the upper part of the harbour and docks, and 32,164 tons in the lower part of the Victoria Channel, being nearly 1,000 tons for every working day. The steam dredges, machines, &c., employed on this occasion, as well as in all the previous dredgings, cost £18,485 11s. 6d. The six harbour passage-boats produced a net revenue of £325 17s. 1d., and at the same time afforded immense accommodation to the public. The Harbour Commissioners balanced their accounts up to the 31st December, 1853, and they appear to have been then possessed of a large and valuable property, amounting to £519,332 11s. 4½d., all of which has been acquired since 1837, with the exception of the two graving docks already alluded to, which descended to them from former corporate bodies.

The following are the particulars of the Harbour Commissioners' affairs up to the 31st December, 1853. Their property consisted of the two old graving docks and adjoining premises, valued at £67,232 6s. 2d.; property acquired under the Acts of 1837 and 1847: consisting of the navigation, on which was expended £94,760 1s. 5d.;

docks and quays £266,271 13s. 1½d.; tenements £17,057 19s. 2d.; land £54,909 15s. 5d.; new harbour office £5,674 7s. 10d.; ship yard for building iron ships, Queen's Island, £1,110 7s. 5d. Expended on coal yards, sheds, steam dredges, machines, harbour boats, &c. £12,316 0s. 10d.; accounts uncollected £805 11s. 7½d.; and cash in the hands of the treasurer, &c. £21,650 19s. 8d., amounting to £541,789 2s. 8d. They had, up to that period, issued bonds on the security of this property and the revenue of the port to the amount of £308,650, on which they paid 5 per cent., and £103,638 4 per cent. interest, and £93 7s. 1d. at like interest, for which no security had yet been given: total amount of debt £412,381 7s. 8d; there was also due to sundry persons, not bearing interest, £694 14s. 5d.; amounting together to £413,076 2s. 1d: thus leaving a surplus property in favour of the Commissioners over their engagements of £128,713 0s. 7d. With this immense property daily accumulating, the trade of the port has kept pace, progressing and increasing with a rapidity and a solidity that is truly astonishing, as will appear from the increase on the tonnage, and the dues received on it since 1789, at intervals of five years, as follows:—

Years ending Dec.31.	TONNAGE.		Years ending Dec.31.	TONNAGE.		Years ending Dec.31.	TONNAGE.	
	Tons.	Dues.		Tons.	Dues.		Tons.	Dues.
1786..	34,287	£267	1809..	74,387	£610	1834..	284,601	£2,038
1789..	41,818	283	1814..	90,486	626	1839..	354,542	2,954
1794..	53,889	374	1819..	131,590	892	1844..	445,537	7,389
1799..	58,058	437	1824..	175,294	755	1849..	555,021	9,179
1804..	71,173	513	1829..	257,522	1,498	1853..	768,505	12,584

Thus, even within half a century, the tonnage has increased ten-fold, and the dues nearly twenty-five fold. For the five years ending 31st December, 1844, the tonnage dues amounted to £27,956 11s. 4d., and for the five succeeding years ending 31st December, 1849, they were £43,493 16s. 11d., being an increase of £15,537 5s. 7d. on the five years. For the year ending the 31st December, 1853, the tonnage on which dues were charged was 768,505 tons, and the dues thereon was £12,584 2s. 2d. Compared with 1848 up to the same date, when the tonnage was 506,953 tons, and the dues £8,358 11s. 10d., there was an increase in five years of 261,552 tons, and £4,225 10s. 4d. in tonnage dues, and more than 50 per cent. on both.

From this statement it appears that, notwithstanding the very large amount of money borrowed by the Harbour Commissioners, and that the interest on it amounted to no less than £18,975 4s. 1d., their income exceeded their expenditure by £2,125 14s. 5½d., a portion of the money at 4 per cent., say £31,173 7s. 8d., was obtained during the year 1853; and after expending £4,601 3s. 2d. part of the cost of building a new, splendid and commodious harbour office, £1,110 7s. 5d. on a yard for building iron ships on Queen's Island, Clarendon Dock repaired, and splendid sheds erected there and at Donegall Quay, three new coal yards built, and paying engineers, solicitors, &c., in all £11,176 9s. 1d., a sum of £21,650 19s. 8d. remained in the hands of the treasurer. The ship yard on Queen's Island is now occupied by Mr. Hickson, who has already built one iron vessel of 220 feet keel, and others of larger dimensions are on the stocks. Bathing ponds have been also formed on it which must be a great luxury to the inhabitants. The quays are now in a continuous line from Lagan bridge to the Mile-water, the length from the Queen's Bridge to the latter point on the county Down side of the river is 2,400 feet, on the Antrim side 4,820 feet, quayage of Clarendon dock 1,800 feet, and of Princes dock 1,730 feet, total line of quayage 10,750 feet. The Clarendon dock extends over a space of 161,500, and the Princes 161,000 square feet. Under the Act of 1847 the Commissioners have the power of charging tonnage at the rate of 9d. per ton on British, and 1s. per ton on Foreign shipping, and 6d. per ton quayage on both; but to the present time the rates charged are only 2d. on sailing coasters, and 4d. per ton on foreign as well as British ships, steamers included, for tonnage; and 3d. on foreign, and 1½d. per ton on all others, for quayage.

The Bill of 1854, which has just passed the legislature, has given the Belfast Harbour Commissioners almost unlimited power to carry out their views in respect to converting a portion of the slob or mud banks of Ballymacarrett into docks and quays on that side of the harbour, to equal those on the Antrim side, as originally laid down in the plan of Messrs. Walker and Burgess, and which in a short time the increased trade of the port will require for its accommodation. Independent of the harbour improve-

ments under this Bill, it is intended by the Commissioners to appropriate a portion of the property to the purposes of a public park for the recreation of the inhabitants of the town and neighbourhood; and also to reserve four acres as a site for a Marine School, an institution originally proposed in the reign of James II., afterwards attempted in 1792, and subsequently brought under the consideration of the Harbour corporation by the late Dr. Hanna. The present arrangement, it is expected, will be a great public benefit. It will not only increase the number of seafaring men belonging to the port, but they will be of a different stamp to those who have preceded them. Such an institution was much wanted in Ireland, and Belfast deserves great praise in having led the way, and by its model school shown the government and parliament what should have been done long since in establishing a national Naval College for the education of young Irish seamen. Mr. E. Getty, who was recently examined before a Committee of the House of Commons, showed that the tonnage of the port of Belfast in 1847 was more than that of Liverpool in 1812, and that it has since kept pace with the immense increasing trade of that port: Liverpool commencing its important era from 1812, and Belfast from 1847. The relative amount of tonnage entering these ports for seven years will best illustrate this point of view:—

LIVERPOOL.		BELFAST.	
Years.	Tonnage.	Years.	Tonnage.
1812	446,788	1847	538,523
1813	547,426	1848	506,953
1814	548,957	1849	555,021
1815	709,848	1850	624,113
1816	774,243	1851	650,988
1817	653,425	1852	684,155
1818	754,690	1853	768,505

In twelve years from 1818 Liverpool had doubled its tonnage, and in the next fifteen years it doubled again. Belfast has doubled its trade in the last ten years, and trebled it since 1837, and Mr. Getty in his evidence was of opinion, that Belfast will go on increasing in the same proportion as Liverpool did under similar circumstances. Belfast, in respect to its harbour debt, is more favourably circumstanced than Liverpool; the debt of the latter

port in 1851 was £4,638,402, its income same year £235,527, its debt, therefore, as compared with its income, was as $19\frac{1}{2}$ to 1. The debt of Belfast in 1851 was £380,564, its income £30,759, or as $12\frac{1}{2}$ to 1. Comparing the official or parliamentary returns for fourteen years with those furnished by the Harbour Commissioners a very material difference exists, the former making the inward tonnage of Belfast 622,969 tons more than the latter. It is probable, however, that the official returns include the trade of the branch or outports of Belfast, such as Carrickfergus, Larne, Donaghadee, &c., still it is impossible to reconcile those of 1853 with 1854, the difference between the official return for the former year and the Harbour Commissioners' accounts was 22,654 tons, while it amounts to 202,720 tons the following year, which, if correct, shows that these outports increased more considerably in their trade than even Belfast.

The following will show the discrepancies alluded to. The official returns are made up to 5th January, and those of the Harbour Commissioners to 31st December in each year; but this will not account for the difference, as both contain the same number of days—the year ending 5th January, 1841, in the official return represents the year ending 31st December, 1840, in the Harbour Commissioners' accounts, and so on:—

OFFICIAL RETURN.		HARB. COMM. ACCT.		OFFICIAL RETURN.		HARB. COMM. ACCT.	
Year ending 5 Jan.	Tonnage Inwards. Tons.	Year ending 31 Dec.	Tonnage Inwards. Tons.	Year ending 5 Jan.	Tonnage Inwards. Tons.	Year ending 31 Dec.	Tonnage Inwards. Tons.
1841 ..	387,930 ..	1840 ..	361,473	1848 ..	566,380 ..	1847 ..	538,523
1842 ..	374,582 ..	1841 ..	357,902	1849 ..	554,114 ..	1848 ..	506,953
1843 ..	375,356 ..	1842 ..	337,505	1850 ..	573,563 ..	1849 ..	555,021
1844 ..	401,004 ..	1843 ..	363,038	1851 ..	651,866 ..	1850 ..	624,113
1845 ..	481,607 ..	1844 ..	445,537	1852 ..	685,338 ..	1851 ..	650,938
1846 ..	531,033 ..	1845 ..	492,560	1853 ..	706,840 ..	1852 ..	684,156
1847 ..	592,217 ..	1846 ..	543,862	1854 ..	971,225 ..	1853 ..	768,505

The system of making up the annual accounts in the public offices to the 5th January is very reprehensible. There is nothing to prevent their being furnished in a plain intelligible manner, year by year, up to the 31st December, a system which is pursued in all well-regulated mercantile establishments.

The following Tables are from returns ordered to be printed by the House of Commons, No. 171, 2nd April, 1851, and No. 250, 16th May, 1854, which give officially the trade of Belfast since 1840.

BELFAST.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of this Port, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending, with the five preceding years.

Years ending 5th January 1846.	ENTERING INWARDS										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Customs' Duties Collected.										
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					Total Inwards.					Foreign Trade.						British and Coasting Trade.					Total Outwards.				
	British.		Foreign n.		Total.	Vess.		Tonne.		Tonne.	Vess.		Tonne.		Tonne.	British.		Foreign.		Total.		Vess.		Tonne.		Tonne.	Vess.		Tonne.		Tonne.
	Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.		Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.		Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.		Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.			Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.		Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.	
	1841..	139	30020	62	8911	201	38931	3993	348900	4194	387930	129	29225	65	9539	194	38764	1630	202494	1824	241258	353	45414	364924							
1842..	141	32136	41	48356	182	36992	3652	337590	3834	374582	139	37672	41	4949	180	42621	1686	204548	1866	247169	375	49620	372648								
1843..	118	26798	32	3523	150	30321	3671	343035	3821	375356	120	31717	29	3340	149	35257	1396	189800	1545	225057	370	50514	350013								
1844..	148	33899	27	3968	175	37867	3759	363137	3934	401004	108	31953	17	2388	125	34341	1547	220421	1672	254762	361	49552	339989								
1845..	177	41119	40	5489	217	46608	4385	434999	4602	481607	133	37484	2	481	135	37965	1725	264220	1860	302185	365	50391	366246								
	723	163972	202	26747	925	190719	19160	1829760	20385	2020479	629	168051	154	20897	783	188948	7984	1081483	8767	1270431	1824	245491	1793820								
1846..	171	45139	57	8691	228	53830	4592	477203	4820	531033	140	43923	59	9682	199	53605	1837	292533	2036	346138	392	54459	372853								
1847..	169	42280	94	16738	263	59028	4770	533189	5033	592217	139	39008	76	13450	215	52458	1909	326900	2124	379358	426	62094	363289								
1848..	279	55919	191	45237	470	101156	4558	465224	5028	566330	242	55867	198	48314	440	104181	2014	295305	2154	400086	464	68361	333996								
1849..	185	49214	58	12021	243	61235	4664	492879	4907	554114	135	47411	56	12094	191	59505	1785	302009	1976	361514	475	71556	341114								
1850..	213	44137	79	17445	292	61532	4404	511981	4696	573563	138	42062	79	17356	217	59418	1456	313619	1673	373037	466	74704	346202								
1846..	1017	236689	479	100142	1496	336831	22988	2480476	24484	2817307	794	228271	468	100896	1262	329167	9001	1530966	10263	1860133	2223	331174	1767454								
to '50	723	163972	202	26747	925	190719	19460	1829760	20385	2020479	629	168051	154	20897	783	188948	7984	1081483	8767	1270431	1824	245491	1793820								
1841..	1740	400661	681	126889	2421	527550	42448	4310235	44869	4837736	1423	3963220	622	121793	2045	518115	16985	2612449	19030	3130564	4047	576665	3551274								
to '50	294	72717	277	73395	571	146112	3528	650716	4099	796828	165	60220	314	79999	479	140219	1017	449483	1496	589702	399	85683	36386								
1841..																															
to '50																															

These Tables show, that during the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered this port from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 927,550 tons, of which 126,889 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastingways 4,310,236 tons: total Inwards 4,897,786 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 518,115 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 121,783 tons were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastingways 2,612,449 tons: total Outwards 3,130,564 tons. There were registered belonging to this port 4,047 vessels of 576,663 tons, and the Customs' duties collected therein was £2,551,274. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade Inwards of 140,112 tons, of which 73,306 tons were Foreign shipping; and on that with Great Britain and Coastingways 650,710 tons: total increase Inwards 790,928 tons, or 39 per cent. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 140,219 tons, of which 79,999 tons were Foreign shipping; and on the British and Coasting trade there was an increase of 440,483 tons: total increase Outwards 589,702 tons. There appears to be an increase of 85,683 tons on the registered shipping, which is owing to the same vessels being registered annually, but the actual increase of 1850 over 1845 was 101 vessels of 23,318 tons, or 44 per cent; there was, however, a decrease on the Customs' duties of £36,906, or 3.75 per cent.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows:—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tnge.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Tnge.	Trade. Foreign Tnge.	Brit. and Coasting Tnge.	Foreign Tnge.	Trade. Foreign Tnge.	Brit. and Coasting Tnge.		
1851	44,226	21,210	586,430	34,945	23,831	378,454	74,770	352,658
1852	53,399	36,399	595,630	37,107	37,178	351,382	76,940	369,146
1853	40,910	26,745	639,185	27,572	27,437	386,354	78,873	377,329
1854	40,571	41,078	889,576	23,812	43,912	611,165	83,178	395,497

The trade of this port, therefore, for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 124,212 tons Foreign, and 964,884 tons in the British and Coasting trade. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 164,083 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 947,012 tons; being an increase on the former of 39,871 tons, and a decrease on the latter of 17,872 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 122,664 tons, being a decrease of 42,219 tons on the previous year, but the British and Coasting trade amounted to 1,025,539 tons, being an increase on 1852 of 78,527 tons. For the year ending 5th January, 1854, the Foreign trade was 149,373 tons, and British and Coasting trade 1,500,741 tons, being an increase on the former of 26,709 tons, and on the latter 475,202 tons, or 43½ per cent. on the general trade of the previous year. The registered shipping, which consisted of 462 vessels and 76,940 tons in January 1851, had increased in 1854 to 493 vessels and 83,178 tons, and the customs' duties, which were then £352,658, had extended to £395,487, being an increase of 31 vessels and 6,238 tons on the former, and of £42,839 on the latter. And the trade of the port for the six months ending 30th June, 1854, has increased considerably on those that preceded them.

Although there are forty steamers, almost all of large tonnage, employed in the trade of Belfast, only twelve of them belong to the port, and three of these, the property of Messrs. Valentine and Dargan, from their small tonnage must be either tug or river boats. The other nine are iron built vessels, five of which are screw impelled, and three of these are the property of the Belfast Screw

Steam Company. The registered tonnage of the twelve steamers is included in the general tonnage belonging to the port, and amounts to 2,214 tons, and, including their engine rooms, to 3,660 tons. Belfast, as a ship-building port, has been long in advance of any other in Ireland, and latterly it has been directing its attention particularly to the construction of iron ships. There are some very extensive ship owners in this port; the first on the list is Messrs. J. and T. Sinclair, who were owners on the 1st January, 1854, of twelve large vessels measuring 10,013 tons, one of these, the *America*, 1,683 tons, and all engaged in Foreign trade; next in importance are Messrs. J. Dunn, who own eight vessels, 6,424 tons; Hugh Wardlow six vessels, 5,582 tons; John Martin and Co. and James Ireland eight vessels, 5,200 tons; D. Grainger six vessels, 4,513 tons, one of these the *Dalriada* 1507 tons, and connected with S. Mac Causland and James Lemon, owns the *Epaminondas*, a fine ship of 1,195 tons; Mr. Lemon also owns several other fine vessels; Messrs. John Harrison three vessels, 3,041 tons; Robert Corry, G. Heyn, W. C. Heron and Co., and a number of other respectable houses, are owners of a considerable amount of tonnage belonging to the port. There were seven vessels of 1,696 tons in the Foreign trade, and twenty-two of 1,747 tons in the British and Coasting trade, whose owners reside in Carrickfergus; one vessel of 356 tons in Foreign trade, and nine of 404 tons in the British and Coasting trade in Larne; one vessel of 302 tons in Foreign trade, and two of 106 tons in the British and Coasting trade in Portaferry; eleven vessels of 400 tons in the British and Coasting trade in Donaghadee; six vessels of 392 tons in Bangor; thirteen vessels of 426 tons in Island Magee, and eight vessels of 415 tons in Cushendall, all registered in Belfast, but very likely trading with the ports in which their owners respectively reside.

The first account on record of ship building in Belfast occurs in 1636, when a vessel of 150 tons was built by the presbyterian clergymen there. In 1682 the largest vessel belonging to the port was the *Antelope*, of 200 tons, a Virginian trader. In 1700 the *Loyal Charles*, 250 tons burthen, the property of some merchants of the town, was launched. But up to 1791 there was no regular place for laying down a vessel, and all those belonging to the port

were built and repaired in England or Scotland. The cross channel trade of Belfast, which is now the most important of all its branches, in 1811 did not employ more than two or three regular traders in the London, and in all not more than twenty vessels in the trade between Belfast and Great Britain, while its merchants, under the most disheartening and embarrassing restrictions, devoted themselves to the pursuit of foreign commerce. The trade between Belfast and the British West Indies commenced as early as 1740, and up to a recent period some extensive houses and superior ships were engaged in it: as late as 1835 there were nine large vessels entered inwards, and fifteen cleared out of this port from and to the West Indies. The trade of Belfast with the United States and British North America was also of early origin, and its foreign exports direct were then very considerable, consisting of linen and cotton manufactured goods, provisions, starch, blue, and whiskey. The imports were tobacco, ashes, cotton, flax seed, clover seed, timber, staves, rosin, &c. In 1682 there were only sixty-seven vessels of 3,307 tons belonging to the port, and fifteen of these traded with France. It subsequently had considerable trade with the Baltic, Archangel, and Holland. From the former the imports were tallow, hemp, flax, timber, ashes, mats, tar, pitch; from the latter flax seed, clover seed, flax, bark, and madder. From the Mediterranean it imported barilla, wine, fruit, oil, &c., and latterly from the Levant and Odessa bread stuffs, tallow, &c. It has also opened a considerable trade with India and China. To all these countries it exports its manufactured linens, and more particularly its linen yarn, but, with the exception of a fractional part direct, the whole of these immense exports are transmitted through English ports. Much has been already said on the subject of general trade and manufactures under the head of Statistics in this work, as to the extent and value of the Belfast exports. The railway commissioners, in their returns for 1835, make the imports £3,695,437, and the exports £4,341,794. The Admiralty has since then furnished a document on harbours for 1850, in which they calculate the amount of the Belfast imports for that year at £6,938,238, and its exports at £4,632,082; but this return must be looked on with considerable doubt, as in the imports it has linen and cotton yarn to the amount of £870,260,

although linen yarn constitutes one of its leading and most valuable exports. It has also on the list of imports, bread stuffs to the amount of £2,147,157, which appears rather heavy for one year, and that year the third after the famine. The first steam boat that arrived in Belfast was from Liverpool in 1819, but merchandize was not transmitted by steam until 1824. There are now five steamers dispatched regularly twice a week for Liverpool; five for Glasgow, one of which proceeds daily with the mail, Sunday excepted; four for Dublin and London once a week; three screw iron steamers for London and Plymouth direct once a week; two for Whitehaven twice a week; two for Androssan three times a week; one for Stranraer, and one for Londonderry weekly; three for Fleetwood, and two for Morecambe twice a week. Vessels formerly only discharged the north side of the harbour, which is now reserved for steamers and vessels on the Foreign trade; the south side is occupied by coasters and colliers, where there is a Coal Exchange, Factors' Offices, and every accommodation for the trade.

The Manufactures of Belfast may be considered the Manufactures of Ireland, and under that portion of this work which treats of Statistics, their history has been in a great degree recorded. The spinning of flax and cotton are the two principal manufactures of the town, or rather flax spinning, which has in a great degree superseded the other branch—Messrs. Mulholland's extensive mills have been already described. In 1832 there were eleven bleach greens in the parish of Belfast, where 260,000 pieces of fine linen cloth were annually bleached, valued at a million. In 1840 there were fifty steam engines of 1,274 horse-power, exerted in spinning linen or cotton yarn, or in weaving, bleaching, printing, or dyeing the fabrics. In 1854 the number of flax spinning mills, which had been twenty-nine in 1850, increased to thirty-three. The trade is in a flourishing condition, and a good understanding exists between the members of its various branches. The country spinners and manufacturers meet those of the town on Fridays in the Commercial Buildings, where the Exchange is held, and where the affairs connected with the trade are arranged. There are several flax scutching, oil, alabaster, and barilla mills, chemical works,

saw mills, tan yards, a felt manufactory, and several hat, soap, and candle manufactories. Up to 1841 there were two extensive distilleries in the town: since then there has been only one of these worked by Messrs. Mackenzie, whose spirit is in considerable repute—there are six breweries. The manufacture of canvass was established here in 1784, when there was only six looms at work, now there are two or three large manufactories, besides a great number of rope walks, the most extensive of which belong to Mr. James Lemor; six large ship-building yards, two of these appropriated exclusively to the building of iron ships—Messrs. Coates and Young have upwards of 300 men employed in building vessels of this description. There are four foundries: the Belfast and Lagan are very extensive, and those at Ballymacarret have been long established; in the same neighbourhood are two glass houses, and one in Belfast—their manufacture is confined to white flint glass; there are also two manufactories of vitriol, bleaching smalts and manganese; two extensive salt works, built on ground reclaimed from the sea. There are several manufactories of starch, glue, and logwood; a flour mill on the Falls Road; and the burning of bricks and lime are on a very extensive scale, and afford employment to a considerable number of the rural population.

There are five banking establishments in Belfast: three of these, the Northern, the Belfast, and the Ulster Banking Companies have been already fully described under the head of "Banking" in the portion of the work devoted to "Statistics." The establishments from which these joint-stock banks emanated were long and intimately connected with the town, and in their original formation, as well as after they became joint-stock banks, have been principally instrumental in sustaining and encouraging that commercial and manufacturing industry and enterprise which has raised Belfast to its present unrivalled state of prosperity. The others are branches of the Bank of Ireland, and of the Provincial Bank of Ireland. There are nine Newspapers in the town, the Belfast News Letter having its origin as early as 1737; the Commercial Chronicle, Mercantile Journal, Mercury, Weekly Mail, Northern Whig, Ulster General Advertiser, Banner of Ulster, and the Ulsterman—two of these are published twice; four, three times; and three, once a week.

The appearance of Belfast is cheerful and prepossessing: it is formed into streets, terraces, and squares; some of these spacious and handsomely constructed, particularly the more recently built part of the town: all the houses are built of brick with slated roofs, and the foot-paths well flagged; it is well lit with gas by a company formed for the purpose under an Act passed in 1822. Previous to 1795 the town was indifferently supplied with water: to remedy this defect, the late Marquis of Donegall gave the Trustees of the Charitable Society a lease of the springs on his estates for sixty-one years. In 1805 water was brought from the Malone springs, at an expense to the town of £3,650. In 1817 an act was passed appointing water apploters, who took the management into their own hands, and allowed the society £750 per annum for their interest in it. Belfast, although situated only a few feet above the level of the sea at spring tides, is healthy, and the air pure and salubrious—the environs are remarkable for beauty. The bold range of mountains north of the town, and skirting the western side of the valley of the Lagan, is picturesque and grand, and strongly contrasts the fertility of the valley itself, which exhibits a variety of hill and dale, wood and water; natural beauty and rich cultivation that cannot be surpassed. On the south is Cave Hill, an object of considerable attraction: MacArts Fort, on the apex, is distinctly seen, from which descends a range of precipitous cliffs, in which are those caves said to have sheltered this Chieftain and his followers in their uttermost extremity, while a portion of the summit of this hill, viewed horizontally, bears a strong resemblance to the profile of the late Emperor Napoleon. About a mile from the town are the Botanical Gardens, comprising seventeen acres, containing many rare exotics.

PUBLIC BUILDINGS.—*The Commercial Buildings* are situated in Waring Street and Bridge Street, and were built in 1822 by subscription; £20,000 having been contributed in shares of £100 each—the proprietors have been formed into a corporate body by Act of Parliament—they are built of granite, and ornamented in front by eight Ionic columns, supported on a broad cornice above the windows of the first story. An area in the interior and a

piazza are appropriated to the use of the merchants who assemble here on change days to transact their business. There is a news-room, an assembly-room, and numerous shops and offices, the rents of which go towards paying the interest on the investment. *The Chamber of Commerce* holds its sittings here: it was originally formed in 1783, but its meetings were suspended from 1794 to 1802; its duties are to protect and preserve the rights and privileges of the commercial community, and to collect valuable information connected with commerce and manufactures. *The White Linen Hall* is a large quadrangular building, situated at the termination of Donegall Place; this edifice is extremely light and handsome, and its spire, built in proportion, has a pleasing effect; it is enclosed in an extensive area by a handsome railing, and is one of the principal promenades of the town. The building contains numerous offices and warerooms, which are occupied by drapers and factors, who receive the cloth from the bleachers, and prepare it for sale or exportation. It was built in 1785, at a cost of £10,000. *The Brown Linen Hall* is on the south side of Donegall Street: connected therewith there are platforms erected for the buyers who attend on Fridays; the brown cloth brought for sale here is generally of the finest texture. *The Corn Exchange* in Victoria Street: the market was formerly held in Smithfield Square, where cattle and hides were also sold four days in the week. *The New Harbour Office* in Corporation Square, formerly Ritchie's Dock, a splendid building. *The Savings Bank*, established in 1816, had, in November 1852, 5,124 depositors, whose lodgements were £113,900, at a rate of £2 18s. 4d. per cent. *The Customs House*, situated on Hanover Quay, is an old, gloomy, and confined edifice; and it is only surprising how the extensive business of the port is carried on in such a building; its appearance is a disgrace to the town, and more particularly so to the Treasury, which has allowed the increasing commerce of the port to remain so long without suitable accommodation. It has at length determined on building a range of public offices, in which the department of the customs, inland revenue, and post office are to be established. *The County Antrim Court-House* is a fine modern building, in the Italian style of architecture; opposite which is the *County Gaol*, capable of containing 300

prisoners. There is a subterraneous communication between them, and both cost upwards of £80,000. The County Antrim Assizes which had been, previous to the summer of 1850, held at Carrickfergus, were then removed to Belfast, where they have been since held. *The Lunatic Asylum* for the counties of Down, Antrim, and Carrickfergus, which contains 281 patients, at an annual expense of £3,459. *The Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Asylum*: a light handsome edifice, built in 1845 by private subscription, and cost £11,000; it is capable of accommodating 100 patients. *The Charitable Societies' Poor House*, for the reception of aged and infirm persons, and support and instruction of destitute children. It was erected in 1774 by subscription, and the produce of a lottery, since then it has been the means of preserving from destitution, misery, or vice, 300 individuals annually. It was in this institution that the juvenile inmates tried their hands in producing the first cotton yarn spun in Ireland. *The House of Industry* in Smithfield, founded in 1809, for supplying the industrious poor with the means of contributing to their own support. *The House of Correction*, erected in 1817 by Grand Jury presentment: there is a spacious hall here for the Quarter Sessions, and where the mayor holds his court; a house for the governor, and cells and yards for the convicts, where they are obliged to work at their trades, or other laborious duties during the terms of their imprisonment. *The Fever Hospital* in Frederick Street: connected with this establishment, which has effected so much good during the visitations of typhus fever, was a dispensary, both supported by a Grand Jury grant of £400 a year; but the Medical Charities Act of 1851 will have the effect of dispensing with both. There is the *Lying-in Hospital*; societies for clothing the poor, and other charitable institutions. *The Places of Entertainment* are—the Theatre in Arthur Street; the Music Hall in May Street; and the Museum in College Square, erected in 1830. There are two infantry, and one artillery barracks in the town; one of these built as far back as 1737.

The Houses of Religious Worship are—Nineteen Presbyterian, twelve Protestant, four Catholic, three Unitarian, one Baptist,

three Wesleyan Methodist, one Independent Methodist, one Mormon, and eight Quakers. The Presbyterians of Belfast are divided into several congregations, each having a handsome edifice for religious worship, independent of supernumerary meeting houses. That of the first congregation in Rosemary Street was rebuilt in 1783, of brick, of an elliptical form, and is much admired. Convenient to this is the Church erected by the second congregation in 1708, and rebuilt in 1790. In 1722, another Meeting House was built by the third congregation, also in Rosemary Street, being the oldest place of worship in the town, and frequented by the most numerous congregation, the country Presbyterians of the parish being members of it. The fourth congregation established their Meeting House in Donegall Street, in 1792. Two other houses were built in 1827 and 1829: that in Fenwick Street cost £7000, and the other £9000. In 1831 the most splendid Presbyterian Church in the kingdom was erected from a design of Mr. Millar, a resident architect; it is of the Doric order of architecture, and cost £10,000. The old Protestant parish Church stood on the south side of High Street, but in 1777, it being found unsafe and inconvenient, it was pulled down, and St. Anne's, which is now the parish Church, was erected in Donegall Street the same year; its elevated and handsome spire contributes to give it a grand and imposing effect. The Chapel of Ease was erected in 1811, on the site of the old Church, in High Street; its portico is a splendid piece of architecture, composed of six lofty massive pillars, and four fluted pilasters of the Corinthian order; it formerly formed the front of Ballyscullen palace, erected by the celebrated Earl of Bristol, Bishop of Derry, and presented as a gift to the Protestants of Belfast by the late Bishop of Down and Connor; the Church is capable of accommodating 1,200 persons. Previous to the old Catholic Chapel of St. Mary's being erected in 1783, the Catholics of Belfast had no house of worship, and Divine Service was celebrated in the open air, in the old graveyard of Malone, called Friar's Bush; and sometimes in a small waste house in Castle Street. In 1811, a Catholic Church was built in Donegall Street: the style of architecture is gothic, and it is one of the finest edifices in the town. The largest of the Metho-

dist Chapels is in Donegall Street, where the Independents have also their meeting house, and the Society of Friends have a handsome house in King Street, erected in 1812.

The Educational Institutions are—The Royal Academical Institution or College, founded in 1810, is already fully described in this work under the head of Statistics. The Belfast Academy, established in 1780, which has acquired considerable celebrity as a classical school. The Queen's College, situated near the Botanical Gardens, a very fine building in the Elizabethan style, from a design by Mr. C. Lanyon, opened in October, 1849. Queen Victoria, on the occasion of her visit to Belfast in the previous month of August, expressed herself much pleased with the architecture and general arrangements of this College, which was to bear her name; its organization and discipline will be found under the head of "Queen's Colleges," in the Statistics to this work. There were twenty-eight National Schools in the town and its vicinity in 1848, and the number of pupils attending 4,334, but which are now estimated at upwards of 6,000. The Lancasterian School, now a Ragged School, the first established in Ireland. Two Sunday Schools. The School of Design, endowed by Government with a parliamentary grant of £600 per annum, in addition to local subscriptions; Lord Dufferin, who has been a liberal contributor to the funds, is President; and Mr. R. Davison, M.P., and Mr. C. Lanyon, Vice-Presidents to this Institution. There are several private Seminaries which educate a considerable portion of the juvenile population, male and female. There are four News Rooms: in the Commercial Buildings, the Corn Exchange, the Peoples', and the White Linen Hall, where there is also a Public Library containing 10,000 select volumes: the Society for the Promotion of Knowledge meets here. There are also Public Libraries at the Colleges, and Belfast Academy, &c. The other Institutions are—the Mechanics Institute, the Working Class Association, the Chemico-Agricultural Society, Literary Society, Essayists' Club, Social Inquiry Society, Harmonic Society, &c., &c.

The Union Work House was built in 1841, to accommodate

3450 inmates. It contains an area of 47,592 acres in the counties of Down and Antrim, population 125,668 persons, in twelve electoral districts, represented by twenty-two elected, and twenty-two *ex officio* guardians; the property subject to the poor rate is valued at £284,596, and the rate in aid levied in 1851 and 1852, was £2,277 17s. 8d. This was a tax levied off those Unions in Ireland which, after providing for their own poor, were compelled to contribute to the support of the Unions in Munster and Connaught, which were either inadequate to the purpose, from there being no available property therein, or the rate being so enormous that it was found impossible to levy it in the respective Unions. It was a most unjust impost, and the town of Belfast was strong in protesting against it. It was also enforced at a time when there was at least £2,470,367 4s. 4d., of the eight million loan voted by parliament for the relief of the Irish poor unappropriated, and which in fact was never expended, but was further increased by repayments to the extent of £868,818 7s. 7d. The amount of the rate in aid levied in 1851 and 1852, in Ulster, was £29,753 1s. 5½d.; Leinster £36,980 14s. 10d.; Munster £37,012 17s. 3d.; Connaught £11,637 12s. 8½d. In Ulster there was no portion of it issued for the support of its poor; in Leinster there was only £962; in Munster there was £96,218 16s.; and in Connaught £33,904 0s. 11d. By a parliamentary paper emanating from the Poor Law Commission, 16th March, 1853, it is stated, that there was of this fund £78,161 15s. 6½d. on hand 31st December, 1852, of which £59,783 12s. 9d. was paid 31st January, 1853, into the Exchequer for advances made by it on the credit of the rate in aid, and that there remained a balance on hand of £18,378 2s. 9½d.; but how this conclusion is arrived at by the document furnished, is a perfect mystery, as it states that in the two years £115,384 6s. 3d. was levied, and £131,084 16s. 11d. issued, being £15,700 10s. 8d. more than was levied. This, like almost all the public documents, is a regular jumble; something is withheld, or something extraneous is introduced, to render them as unintelligible as possible. In this instance, if there is a balance on hand, it should be refunded to the Unions in Ulster and Leinster, in proportion to their contributions to the rate in aid.

The amount of postage, excise, and stamps collected in Belfast for the four years ending 5th January, 1853, was :—

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Postage	£6,934	7,246	7,415	7,642
Excise	192,645	206,278	222,357	242,004
Stamps	26,525	26,991	29,653	34,887

The number of persons employed in collecting the Customs' revenue of this port in 1849, was 133, whose united salaries amounted to £9,242 15s. 2d.

Leaving Belfast by the New Cut or Victoria Channel, the vast improvements on both sides of the harbour excite universal admiration, and strongly contrast the reminiscences of half a century, when there was nothing to be seen at low water but mud banks, and only nine or ten feet of water to the quay, even in spring tides. This fine channel, by cutting off the bends in the river, has lessened the distance more than a mile from the town to Garmoyle, where vessels of a large draught of water were obliged to moor and discharge their cargoes. The Lough now becomes a magnificent sheet of water, and the views, particularly to the N. E., are strikingly grand and picturesque, and the country on both sides studded with handsome villas and rich plantations. That part of the Lough is now passed opposite Carrickfergus roads, where the royal squadron which attended Queen Victoria in her visit to Belfast in August 1849, anchored. Clearing the Lough of Belfast, and proceeding northwards, Blackhead and Cobbins Cliffs are passed on the Antrim coast, and Island Magee presents itself near the southern entrance to Lough Larne, where, in 1642, Robert Munroe and his adherents deliberately put to death, in cold blood, the whole Catholic population of the place, in retaliation, it is supposed, for a similar atrocity committed on the Protestants by the Irish party at Portadown the previous year. It has some trade and shipping, the land is fertile and well cultivated, and traces of coal have been found in it. Lough Larne has good anchorage ground, and is a safe harbour of refuge for vessels not drawing more than twelve or thirteen feet of water. The town of Larne is delightfully situated; some fine vessels belong to the port, and it exports grain, flour, cattle, and lime. It is extensively engaged in the manufac-

ture of salt, which it exports to some extent to Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. Its imports are timber, slates, coal, and latterly wheat and Indian corn. On the northern side of the harbour are the ruins of Olderfleet Castle, where Edward Bruce landed in 1315. Between Lough Larne and Glenarm are the maiden rocks and light houses, sixty feet high, displaying a red and white light, seen in clear weather thirteen or fourteen miles to sea; the lanterns are eighty-four and ninety-four feet respectively above high water. The coast to Glenarm is bounded by Agnews mountain, 1,500 feet above the level of the sea; while on the east the Isle of Arran, and other smaller isles, and the distant Scottish coast terminate the extensive sea view. From Glenarm to Cushendall is about thirteen miles, and the romantic beauty and variety of scenery along the coast cannot be excelled. Cushendall is another of these small branch ports to Belfast, and has some trade and shipping; it is on the sea coast, and its fine bay affords good anchorage in from three to nine fathoms water. Cushendun, another small port is also passed, and Benmore or Fairhead, the most northerly point of Ireland, is now attained. This bold, commanding promontory is about four miles from Ballycastle, and rises perpendicularly to the height of 631 feet above the level of the sea; it is formed of a number of basaltic colossal pillars, many of them exceeding 200 feet in length, and five in width; one of these forms a quadrangular prism, said to be the largest basaltic pillar yet discovered, exceeding in diameter the pedestal that supports the statue of Peter the Great, at St. Petersburg, and considerably higher than the shaft of Pompey's pillar at Alexandria. At the base of this magnificent colonnade are immense masses of rock, which have been dislodged from their more elevated original positions by storms, or other more violent operations of nature, and appear like the ruins of some ancient fortress, toppled down with the ocean wave beating hoarsely against them. The entire line of coast from Magilligan to Portrush may be properly called the Giant's Causeway. The view from the sea is grand in the extreme, comprising Fairhead, Carrick-a-rede, Bengore, and the whole extent of variegated limestone and basaltic coast. The beautiful white-robed promontory of Kenbaan is a most interesting object;

at some distance is Sheep Island, and more immediately in front, is the Island of Rathlin or Raghery, which afforded an asylum to that heroic chieftain, Robert Bruce, in the winter of 1306-7, when an exile from Scotland; on a rugged perpendicular rock, near the northern angle of the island, are the ruins of an ancient fortress, called Bruce's Castle, and near it on the Beach is a cavern, which is also called Bruce's Cave. While sailing along this coast the mind is filled with sublimity and awe, and sometimes with delight, in witnessing those stupendous works of nature which are occasionally interspersed with the most enchanting scenery. Ballycastle is now approached, a place of great antiquity, as its coal mines are supposed to have been worked, even as early as the time the Phœnicians traded with the country. In 1770, during the operations of modern coal mining there, in a portion of the cliff which was considered unexplored, was discovered the remains of a mine containing galleries and chambers, which had been worked in a most scientific manner, pillars being left at proper intervals to support the roof, and some of the tools and baskets used by these ancient miners were also discovered, but on being touched crumbled to pieces. This affords another proof that civilization and the arts and sciences had existed in Ireland long antecedent to the time that some sage writers contend they were first introduced there. Formerly these collieries were worked to some extent: the coal is found about 120 yards from the entrance of freestone rocks, which are situated on the sea coast. Ballycastle has great natural advantages, and at a moderate expense could be made a fine harbour. Every attempt, however, made by the respected family of the Boyd's to constitute it a port, was effectually resisted by the Irish Society, and the consequence is, that the pier and quay, which was constructed by a grant of the Irish parliament to the amount of £13,290 19s. 6d., are now in ruins, the harbour choked up, and the collieries, which used to export 15,000 tons of coals annually, are no longer worked. The splendid harbour of Portrush, situated on the north Atlantic, near the entrance to the Bann is next passed, and four miles higher up the river stands the town Coleraine.

COLERAINE.

COLERAINE is a very ancient maritime town. Some suppose it derives its name from *Cuel Rathuin*, in reference to the numerous forts in its neighbourhood, while others identify it with *Rath-mor-muighe-line*, the Royal palace of the Kings of Dalnairidhe. It is 145 miles north of Dublin, and 36 miles east-north-east of Londonderry by railway, and is situated $55^{\circ} 8'$ latitude, $6^{\circ} 29'$ longitude, on the river Bann, which has its source in the northern extremity of the Mourne Mountains, and, making a circuit to the north-west by Banbridge, it meets the Newry Canal at Portadown, a short distance from which it falls into Lough Neagh, from whence it escapes at Toome, and after forming Lough Beg, it waters the town of Coleraine, and dissolves itself in the North Atlantic at Portrush. It is seventy miles in its course, which is so smooth, and its waters so clear, that it is called the "Silver Bann," and esteemed superior to any other in the Island for bleaching purposes. Coleraine is a parliamentary Borough in a Barony of the same name, in the county of Londonderry, which was formerly the county of Coleraine, and extended from the river Bann on the east to Lough Foyle on the west. Its municipal boundary contains 963 acres. In 1814 the town and liberties contained a population of 8,817 persons; in 1831 there were 7,646 inhabitants in the parish, of which 5,668 were in the town; in 1834 it increased to 6,143, of which 1,441 were Protestants, 877 Catholics, and 3,825 Presbyterians and other Protestant Dissenters. In 1841 there were 6,255 inhabitants, occupying 1,132 houses; in 1851 the population was only 5,920, and the number of houses 1,063, being a decrease of 69 houses, and 355 persons, but this was exclusive of 342 persons in the Union Workhouse. It returned two members to the Irish, and is still permitted to return one to the United parliament: its present representative is the Right Hon Lord Naas, late Secretary for Ireland in the Derby

administration. In 1834 the constituency registered under the Act 2nd William IV., ch. 84, was 320; in 1849 it increased to 369; in 1851, under the Act 13th and 14th Vic., ch. 69, passed with the avowed intention of increasing the constituencies, but it had the contrary effect, and that of Coleraine decreased to 222. The last parliamentary return of 1853 gave 246 as the number on the registry, of which twenty were burgesses or freemen of the old corporation. Killowen, which is that part of the town on the western bank of the Bann, is of great antiquity, and was at one time the chief town of the county of Coleraine. In 540 a priory of regular Canons was founded by St. Carbreus, a disciple of St. Finian, and first Bishop of Coleraine. In 930, Armedius, the abbot, and a number of monks were butchered by the Danes. In 1171 it was pillaged by Maurice MacDunlevie. In 1214 the buildings of the town were demolished to furnish materials for a castle erected by Thomas MacUchtry and the Irish; but the priory was respected. In 1244 a Dominican Friary was founded by the O'Cahans; Shane O'Boyle, the last abbot, surrendered it to the Commissioners of Henry VIII. in 1542. Previous to the confiscation of Ulster, the O'Cahan's were possessed of the town and county of Coleraine; they were faithful adherents of the O'Neill's, to whom they were tributary, and supported them through centuries of civil strife and in defending their rights and liberties against foreign aggression. It is asserted, however, that the last of this family gave such information to Montgomery, Bishop of Derry, and the council in Dublin Castle, of Hugh O'Neill's having entered into a fresh conspiracy to overthrow the English power in Ulster, that it had the effect of forcing this chieftain to expatriate himself, and seek safety in foreign lands, abandoning his immense possessions, which Chichester, and the other greedy adventurers who acted with him had long marked for spoliation. Had O'Cahan been instrumental in producing these long wished-for results, it is not probable that his property would have been involved in the general confiscation that followed. On the accession of James I. to the throne, Hugh O'Neill, and Roderick O'Donnell, who had succeeded Red Hugh in the principality of Tyrconnell, accompanied Lord Mountjoy to the English court, where they were well received by the monarch,

and O'Donnell created Earl of Tyrconnell, as O'Neill had been previously made Earl of Tyrone. They were dismissed apparently with every mark of distinction and confidence, and sent home to resume possession of their estates, and with a guarantee that the free exercise of the Catholic religion should be tolerated; and now the Province of Ulster, so long agitated by civil war, for a season enjoyed the blessings of profound peace. But this state of things sadly disappointed the English expectants, both lay and clerical, and several plans were devised to entrap these chieftains into some plot against the state, or drive them again into open insurrection. In 1605, the King's Councillors suddenly published in Dublin the Act of Uniformity, the 2nd of Elizabeth, which strictly prohibited attendance on Catholic worship, and a proclamation was issued by the King soon after, which declared to his "beloved subjects of Ireland that he would not admit any such liberty of conscience as they were made to expect," and commanded that all Catholic clergymen by a certain day should depart the realm. These measures it was supposed would have roused the northern chieftains to resistance, but they failed to do so, and others were had recourse to. An anonymous letter about this period had led to the discovery of the gunpowder plot; and as James had shown some sagacity in elucidating its dark intent, it was supposed that a similar instrument would be favourably entertained by him. Accordingly, early in 1607 a letter was concocted, without signature, addressed to Sir William Usher, Clerk of the Council, and deposited so conveniently in the chamber that the door porter picked it up, and carried it to the Lord Deputy, then sitting in Council. This letter disclosed a plot which it stated had been formed by some popish gentlemen to seize on the castle of Dublin, and the military garrisons in the North, to poison the Lord Deputy, and cut off Sir Oliver Lambert and other officers; that the Pope, the Jesuits, and the Catholic King were to supply them with men and means to carry their intentions into effect. And the writer concluded by stating that, "although he revered the mass and the Catholic religion, yet he preferred the good of his country to every other consideration." Cecil, the late Queen's artful adviser, and who now directed the councils of James, got the credit of devising this

plot, and of employing Lord Howth to entrap O'Neill, O'Donnell, Lord Delvin, and other Irish chiefs in another, which was to be divulged by him to the government. Whether James had originally entered into this scheme of depriving these chieftains of all their possessions, or had become alarmed by the rumours of plots, and the intrigues that the real plotters about his person were now engaged in, to accomplish their purpose, is uncertain ; but he now appears to have countenanced and encouraged those claims made by the Bishop of Derry and others, to a considerable portion of O'Neill's property. The Irish government subtilely declined to interfere in this suit, and O'Neill was summoned to England, to answer those claims which had been there speciously urged against him. While preparing for his departure, he was informed that these were only pretexts used for the purpose of decoying him thither, and that witnesses were suborned to prove his participation in plots and conspiracies already invented by his enemies for his ruin. He had already witnessed the persecution which was now in full operation against his religion ; he had sufficient experience of what he was to expect from the justice of English law, with the tide of courtly favour setting in strong against him : he was aware that he could only negotiate with effect with an imposing force at his disposal, and unwilling, probably, to involve his devoted countrymen in the horrors of another civil war, he rashly adopted the resolution of expatriating himself and family, taking with him O'Donnell and his family, and other faithful friends, resolved to share their exile, rather than endure the degradation and oppression that too evidently awaited them at home. They embarked in the autumn of 1607, on a French ship which had conveyed two Irish chieftains back to their native country, and was lying in Lough Swilly. This ship landed them safe in Normandy, where, soon after their arrival, the English ambassador at the court of France exhibited a proclamation drawn up by the drivelling, pedantic, bewitched King, charging these noble exiles with being "base and rude in their original, and that they had not their creations or possessions in regard of any lineal or lawful descent from ancestors of blood or virtue." James little reflected, in his anxiety to cover the Irish chiefs with obloquy, that a considerable

portion of it must fall to his own lot, as he and O'Neill were descended from the same ancestors, which he termed "rude and base;" and although he could trace his descent in right of his mother, through a long line of distinguished kings, his paternal ancestry, and his own immediate birth, was of the most equivocal character. Mary, Queen of Scots, was probably the most beautiful and accomplished woman of her age, but she was not devoid of those frailties and weaknesses, of which the loveliest of her sex have been but too frequently susceptible. She was educated in the gay, voluptuous court of France, and was married to the Dauphin Francis; by whose death she became a widow at the early age of nineteen. Soon after her arrival in Scotland she espoused the Earl of Darnley, but their conjugal felicity was of short duration, she soon became disgusted with the frivolity of his character, and placed her affections on David Rizzio, an Italian *artiste*, to whom, in all probability, this English monarch, so tenacious of ancestry, was himself indebted for his origin. The proclamation indulged in other shameful falsehoods, and that, too, after pledging itself on "the worde of a Kinge," as to their truth, it proceeds to say:—that not a shadow of molestation was intended against these noblemen in respect to religion; when it was notorious that two years previously the King's Council in Dublin forbade attendance on Catholic worship under severe penalties, and a proclamation was issued by himself, commanding the Catholic clergy forthwith to leave the kingdom. But, forsooth, O'Neill and O'Donnell professed no religion, they were denounced as murderers, rapparees, and fornicators, and therefore not to be troubled in respect to religious ceremonies or opinions. The English ambassador demanded from Henry IV., then King of France, that they should be given up as traitors to their sovereign, but that illustrious monarch discredited the improbable falsehoods with which they were charged, and refused to compromise the honour and hospitality of the nation, by surrendering them into his sanguinary and despotic hands. The other foreign courts followed the example of France, and they were everywhere received with the greatest distinction; O'Donnell, and Maguire of Fermanagh, who accompanied him, died soon after their arrival, and O'Neill proceeded to Rome, where he lived on

the bounty of the Pope. Becoming old and blind, and worn down with care, he died there in 1616, regretting in his last moments that mistaken policy which induced him to abandon his country. Immediately on the flight of the Earls, as it was called, being announced, James laid claim not only to the immense estates they were possessed of themselves and their feudatories, but also to those belonging to Irish chieftains allied or in friendly intercourse with them. By these sweeping forfeitures, 500,000 acres of land in the counties Tyrone, Donegall, Coleraine, Fermanagh, Armagh, and Cavan, were placed at the disposal of the Crown, which was confirmed in 1609 by a mock inquisition, at the head of which was the Deputy Chichester. James had now full scope to indulge his hobby for reforming Ireland by the introduction of English law, civility, and the protestant religion, among a barbarous people. The means devised by this clement monarch, and the hungry adventurers who had long thirsted for a consummation such as this, was to rob, dispossess, and root out the natives by the sword, and plant Englishmen and Scotchmen in their homes, and those of their fathers, to which they had an hereditary and inalienable right. These properties were parcelled out in lots of 1,000, 1,500, and 2,000 acres; the undertakers to be of three sorts: first, English or Scotch, who were to plant their portion with their countrymen; second, servitors of Ireland, who might plant with Scotch or Irish tenants; third, natives of Ireland, who were to be made freeholders. The rent exacted by James for every 1,000 acres occupied by the first class was £5 6s. 8d. per annum, no rent to be paid for two years. The larger portions to be held by knights-service, in *capite*; the latter in common soccage. Undertakers of 2,000 acres were to build a castle and bawn; of 1,500 acres, a stone or brick house and bawn; and those of 1,000 acres to make at least a court or bawn; the under-tenants to build their dwellings as near the castle house or bawn of the original undertaker as possible, who was at all times to have a sufficient store of arms therein for their mutual defence. Previous to the delivery of the letters patent, every undertaker was obliged to take the oath of supremacy, and they were prohibited from devising any portion to persons refusing to take the same; this effectually excluded the native Irish, and it

was a mockery to introduce them at all in the arrangement. However, should any of them who escaped transportation take the oath, and be admitted as freeholders, they were to hold their portion in fee-farm, at the yearly rent of £10 13s. 4d. for every 1,000 acres : that is, double the rent of the English or Scotch undertakers ; and while they had their lands rent free for two years, the Irish were subject to pay the excessive rent at the end of one ; they were also prohibited, on pain of forfeiture, to exact cuttings or coshering, &c. The servitors in Ireland had their holdings in fee-farm, and were to pay £8 for every 1,000 acres inhabited by Irish tenants, but only £5 6s. 8d. if planted with English or Scotch. Subsequently there were other arrangements made as to the precincts or districts in which these respective undertakers were to be located, and those portions allotted to Trinity College and the Protestant Church were defined. James was now possessed of an extraordinary whim, he conceived that the Corporation of London was the ablest body he could select to carry his views in respect to the Ulster plantation into effect, and communications were made by Cecil to it, to show the great advantages that would result to the City of London from sharing in the spoliation. The Privy Council and Corporation soon came to an understanding, but the cunning citizens would not seal the agreement until they had ocular demonstration of the promised land ; four of their body therefore went to Ireland, and on their return reported favourably of the plantation. The agreement was now entered into, by which the Corporation bound itself to levy £20,000, whereof £15,000 was to be expended on the plantation, and £5,000 to satisfy private interests. That in Derry 200 houses should be built, and room left for 300 more ; and that 4,000 acres, no part of which was to be bog or mountain, was to be appropriated as waste land for the city. That the town of Coleraine should be erected on the Abbey side of the Bann ; 100 houses immediately built, and room left for 200 more, and that 3,000 acres of land adjoining the town should be appropriated thereto ; these 7,000 acres to be held in fee-farm at a rent of £2 13s. 4d., and the liberties of both places to extend three miles. That the remaining portion of the county of Coleraine, estimated at 12,000 acres, except the Bishop and Dean of Derry's inheritance, and a small portion to be assigned

to three Irish freeholders, be cleared and possession given to the Corporation, with the woods of Glanconkine and Killetrough. That the duties, tolls, and customs of Derry, Coleraine, and Portrush, should be enjoyed by the Corporation for ninety-nine years, on the payment of 6s. 8d. yearly to the crown. That it should have the Castle of Culmore, and the lands attached to it in fee-farm, and the fisheries on Lough Foyle and the Bann, as far as Lough Neagh, in perpetuity; and the Corporation on its part agreed that the houses and fortifications which it undertook to build in Derry and Coleraine were to be completed on the 1st November, 1611. The agreement being now perfected, the Corporation decreed that a company should be formed and established in the City of London, to consist of a governor, deputy governor, and twenty-four assistants, the recorder to be one, and the governor and five of the assistants to be aldermen; the deputy and twelve of the assistants to resign annually, and others to be elected in their stead; and that nine of this body, including the governor, or deputy governor, should have full power and authority to hold a court, to determine and direct all matters connected with this plantation. This was the origin of the Irish Society, of whom William Cockaine was elected the first governor, and Tristram Beresford and John Rowley were appointed its agents, who proceeded to Ireland and took possession of the estates for the society; soon after it exchanged with Sir Thomas Phillips the Castle of Limavaddy, with 3,000 acres of land adjoining it, for other lands belonging to him. In 1603, at a court of common council, the governor of the Irish Society reported that a division of the Irish estates had been made into twelve parts, to suit the twelve principal companies, which were the goldsmiths, grocers, fishmongers, ironmongers, mercers, merchant tailors, haberdashers, clothworkers, skinners, vintners, drapers, and salters—who, with the exception of the grocers and merchant tailors, had minor companies connected with them—the proportions, inspected by Pynnar, consisted of 3,210 acres each: but the total was upwards of 200,000 acres, independent of the towns of Londonderry and Coleraine; and the lands, woods, ferries, and fisheries attached thereto, which not being susceptible of division, were retained by the Irish Society, and the

rents and profits accounted for with the twelve companies, each of whom had contributed £3,333 6s. 8d., in all £40,000, which had been already disbursed on the plantation. James the same year granted a charter to the town of Coleraine: and having ascertained that the plantation entrusted to the society was making but indifferent progress, he wrote to the Deputy Chichester to inquire into the matter and report thereon; Sir Josias Bodley was appointed to inspect the works, and he having reported most unfavourably of the progress made, James issued a manifesto, stating, that he would seize into his own hands all lands on which the terms of the plantation should not be performed before the last day of August the following year, 1616. In 1619, Nicholas Pynnar, who was appointed in the room of Sir Josias Bodley, to make a survey of the Ulster plantation, represented Coleraine to be in a most unimproving state; only three houses building, and the town so dirty and thinly inhabited, that if the ramparts were capable of defence, there were not men sufficient to man the sixth part of them. In 1622, Sir Arthur Chichester granted his interest in Lough Neagh to the Society for ever, at the yearly rent of £100; and Sir Thomas Phillips made another survey of the plantation in the hands of the Society and the London companies, with a sinister intention. In 1624, the year before James's death, the whole of this property was sequestered, the monarch, no doubt, intending to seize it into his own hands, on the plea of breach of contract. James, who professed such liberality in his distribution of the Ulster escheated properties, nevertheless made the plantation indirectly a source of considerable revenue to himself; his prodigality towards his favourites, and his other excesses, had exhausted his English exchequer, and no expedient for raising money was considered too outrageous or mean to supply the defect. It was not difficult to foresee that a plantation formed in the midst of a plundered and indignant people would require considerable military aid, and James made this a pretext in 1619 for instituting a new order of nobility to rank between a knight and a baron, to be styled a baronet, and confined to 200 gentlemen. The cost of the patent was £1,095, estimated at the charge of keeping thirty men in Ulster for three years at eight pence a day, which was paid into the exchequer

on the delivery thereof, and which replenished it to the extent of £218,000. But neither men nor money ever found their way into Ireland; on the contrary, the military force, which had been at the commencement of his reign 20,000 men, had dwindled down in 1622 to 2,000, and these were supported at an annual cost of £52,000, paid, or rather compromised, by their commanders, who deducted the amount from the rents reserved by the Crown, out of their immense estates. They were principally privy councillors, and all leagued in supporting a system of peculation and misgovernment of the most frightful character. The success that attended the crown in the confiscation of the estates of O'Neill and O'Donnell, induced James, and his unscrupulous advisers, to have recourse to the most daring acts of spoliation; the keenest arts and distortions of the law to invalidate titles, and deprive the rightful owners of their estates were resorted to: Protestants and Catholics, English and Irish, friends as well as foes, were alike the victims of this legal persecution, which, with some abatement of violence, was quite as effective as those that had been previously accomplished by the sword. James expected to derive an immense revenue from the resumption of grants previously made by the Crown, in which he was confirmed by Chichester and the other members of the Irish government, intent on participating in the plunder themselves. Possession of property for centuries, or titles as far back as Henry II., were declared bad in law, and when jurors had the nerve or moral courage to decide against the Crown and in favour of the defendants, they were summoned before the Irish Star Chamber, reprimanded, fined, and sometimes imprisoned. Every project for discovering defective titles was entertained, if put forward under the pretext of improving the King's revenue; property was everywhere disturbed, and the most flagrant robberies committed. Those who issued out commissions to inquire into defective titles obtained grants of the properties themselves, the King taking a portion in money or increased rents. Among these were a class of men called "discoverers," who rummaged the records of the Tower of London, to ascertain the original rents reserved to the Crown on Irish properties, the possessors of which, aware of the folly of contesting their rights, no matter how sacred, in opposition to the royal will,

considered themselves fortunate if allowed to compromise by the payment of exorbitant fines for their estates, which had been, in many instances, in possession of their families for centuries. These were the most moderate of the many flagrant modes of oppression resorted to by the hirelings and favourites of government to carry their iniquitous designs into effect. The case of the Wicklow Byrnes, two old and unoffending proprietors, will best illustrate the cruelties that were perpetrated in furtherance of these objects: descended from an ancient independent Irish sept, they still retained a considerable landed property, a valuable portion of which Sir William Parsons, James's surveyor-general, and Lord Esmond, conspired to rob them of. The Byrnes, informed of their design, and having powerful interest at court, obtained a grant from the King confirming them in the property, but these officials refused to pass the patent, and thus rendered the title a nullity. Concluding that their designs on the property were likely to be frustrated as long as the Byrnes lived, they had them arrested on a charge of treason. A farmer of the name of Arthur, of English descent, who had been induced in the first instance to join in the conspiracy, subsequently refused to come forward as a witness; to overcome his scruples he was subjected to the most dreadful tortures: he was burnt with hot irons, flogged, and his body placed on a gridiron on a charcoal fire, until nature gave way, and he consented to swear to any thing. He was then sent, with two convicted thieves, before the grand jury of the county Carlow, to support bills of indictment against the Byrnes, which were ignored; the jurors for this were summoned before the Star Chamber in Dublin, and heavily fined. The two felons, who were not considered sufficiently pliant, were executed at Kilkenny, and in their last moments declared the Byrnes innocent. These persecuted men were still detained in custody, and the court of King's Bench refused to discharge them: during the two years they remained in prison, orders were frequently sent from England that these scandalous proceedings should cease, and the prisoners be restored to their estates, but they were disregarded by the government officials. On the death of the Duke of Richmond, who had warmly interfered in their behalf, Parsons and his confederates determined on bringing the plot to

issue ; grants of portions of the Byrnes estate were made to some landowners in the county Wicklow, who were then placed on the grand jury, and on the depositions of four paid criminals taken in Irish, and translated by one of the prosecutors, none of whom personally appeared, the Bills were found. The evidence, however, to satisfy a petty jury was still considered incomplete, and even more atrocious acts were perpetrated to obtain it. A number of persons were seized and tried by court martial, charged with participating in the Byrnes treason, those who refused to sustain the conspiracy against them were tortured, and others put to death ; ultimately the fortitude and address of the Byrnes saved their lives. The affair had made some noise in England, and the King was at length obliged to actively interfere. Commissioners were sent over to investigate the various accusations brought by Parsons and the other officials against their intended victims, who, on being brought to trial, were honourably acquitted ; but Parsons and his accomplices having obtained by patent a great portion of their property, were most shamefully allowed to retain it. The documents connected with this atrocious act of spoliation are preserved in the library of Trinity College, Dublin. This is only a solitary instance of the official rapine and cruel oppression perpetrated under the forms and sanction of the law. James was peculiarly adapted for the part he acted in this most villanous scheme to rob a nation ; he was an arch hypocrite who assumed a bold address, but was nevertheless cowardly, mean, cunning, and avaricious ; his appetite for plunder was insatiable, it increased with his years, on it he fed, and just before death put an end to his career, he meditated devouring his own offspring, by confiscating the Ulster plantation which he had created himself. The unjust and vicious acts of this bad and selfish King produced a civil war in both countries, and brought his unfortunate son and successor to the block. Charles I., who ascended the throne in 1625, acting on the suggestions of his predecessor in respect to the plantation formed in Ulster by the London companies, the sequestration of the county of Londonderry was resumed, and the rents were levied to the King's use. In 1637, the letters patent granted by James of the city and county of Londonderry were cancelled, and both seized into the King's

hands. In 1639, commissioners were appointed to make grants of these lands, as well as those belonging to the London companies. In 1641, Charles having returned from Scotland, and being entertained by the City of London, directed that their Ulster possessions should be restored to the Irish Society and the companies. The parliament also revoked the sentences of the courts and of the Star Chamber, and decreed that the property should revert to those in possession when it passed, but the civil war of 1641 prevented its being carried into effect. At its termination the Society and the companies came again into possession, and the former renewed the leases in Derry and Coleraine. In 1656, Cromwell confirmed them in the same rights they enjoyed under the letters patent of James I. On the restoration of Charles II. the Corporation of London obtained a new charter, 10th April, 1662 (14th Charles II.), being that under which the Irish Society act to the present day. The customs, tonnage, and poundage of Coleraine and Londonderry being granted to the society by this charter, and it being deemed prejudicial to the interests of the Crown to carry it into effect, the Society accepted £6,000 as compensation for the same; £2,000 of which was then paid. From this period the records of the proceedings of the Irish Society have been kept in the Irish Chamber, Guildhall, London. In 1675 the site of the citadel of Coleraine was let to improving tenants. In 1685 James II. having previously ascended the throne, a *quo warranto* issued against the corporation of Coleraine. In 1689, Colonel Rawdon, who was obliged to evacuate Belfast, Lord Mount Alexander, and Lord Blaney, concentrated their forces here, about 4,000 strong, but James's army having crossed the Bann, and attacked them in considerable force, they were obliged to retreat on Londonderry. In 1709 the corporation of Coleraine solicited the Society to encourage the establishment of a linen manufacture in the town, with which it did not comply. In 1713 considerable differences existed in the corporation, and on the complaint of some of the burgesses, the mayor was ordered to appear before the Irish Privy Council, to answer the complaints preferred against him. In 1714 and 1715 the disputes still continued in respect to corporate rights, and one of the contending parties carried off the sword and mace. In 1718 it was

determined to build a new bridge over the Bann at Coleraine; the Society recommended that it should be built of stone, and not of wood, as originally intended. In 1727 the corporation returned two members to parliament not nominated by the Society, which displeased it much. In 1730 the Society contributed £500 to commence the bridge of Coleraine. In 1740 the corporation, as well as that of Londonderry, agreed to pass bye-laws recommended by the Chief Justice Singleton, which being approved of by the Society, it voted him a service of plate, value one hundred guineas, but although the most frequent and earnest solicitations were made to induce him to accept it, he invariably refused, leaving on record almost a solitary instance of the disinterestedness of public officials. In 1742 the Society enclosed the quay, and granted £700 and thirty-five tons of timber towards building the market-house of Coleraine; and in 1745 it contributed £2,050 additional towards building the bridge, which was further improved in 1806, at the expense of the corporation of Coleraine: it is a splendid structure, consisting of three arches, the pillars and buttresses of hammered stone; it is ninety-six yards in length, and thirty-two feet in width, and cost £14,500. In 1765 the government, in consideration of £4,000 due to the Society for surrendering its rights to the customs, &c., of the ports of Londonderry and Coleraine, agreed to exonerate it from maintaining a garrison in the fort of Culmore, which it was bound to do by the original letters patent, and that in future it should only keep it in repair, and pay the governor yearly £200. In 1770 a lease was granted by the Society to the corporation of their holdings for fifty years. In 1820 it was recommended by a committee of the Society, emanating from a deputation which visited Coleraine, that a public sewer should be constructed, the streets widened, the gaol repaired, the bowling-green kept open, and that cottages should be built, and a public walk or mall made on the banks of the Bann. The corporation, which was styled the mayor, aldermen, and burgesses of the town of Coleraine, has become extinct, and its property, which in 1844 amounted to £1,335 per annum, principally arising from rents and tolls, is now vested in the town commissioners, under the act of 9th George IV., ch. 82: they are twenty-one in number, and the

year previous to the corporate property falling into their hands a rate of £177 was exacted for the purpose of lighting, paving, and watching the town; the paving, however, is done at the expense of the county. The number of persons eligible to be elected to that office in 1853 was sixty-nine, and to vote for same 239; there are 151 householders rated at £4, forty-two at £8, twenty-nine at £10, thirty-three at £12, and one hundred and thirty-six at £15 and upwards. The town is handsomely built, and, although its growth in population has been slow, it is increasing in importance. It is composed of a square, called the Diamond, and several streets emanating from it: there are still some timber houses standing, composed of cage work, framed in London, and sent over by the Irish Society. The scenery in the neighbourhood is delightful, to which the fine river, the Bann, and some handsome country villas, materially contribute. The air is pure and salubrious, and during the visitations of typhus fever and the cholera, the number of deaths, compared with the population, was far below the average.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—Although the Irish Society in 1709 declined to encourage the manufacture of linen cloth in Coleraine, yet the population of the town and neighbourhood, as well as at Ballymoney, Mullamore, and in fact throughout the whole range of the London companies estates, applied themselves strenuously to the pursuit. This district soon became famous for producing linens of the finest fabrics, which were known in the English and foreign markets as “Coleraines,” a name which guaranteed their superior quality. The first bleach green established in the neighbourhood of Coleraine was in 1734, by Mr. John Orr, but others soon followed; and the quantity of linen bleached here annually, some years ago was estimated at 200,000 pieces, valued at £800,000. At Saturday’s market in Coleraine, 1,000 webs of brown cloth was about the average sale. The other manufactures are soap, candles, hats, bleaching salts, leather, and paper. A large brewery was established here as far back as 1770. There is also a distillery, and one at Bush Mills; the whiskey distilled in both is held in high estimation.

The commerce of Coleraine has been long retarded by its

harbour being so difficult of access. At the mouth of the Bann there is a bar of shifting sands, on which, during the prevalence of neap tides, there is only five or six feet of water, and at spring tides not more than ten feet. This obstacle excludes the tide in a great measure, and it rushes by the entrance of the river with great velocity. Its rise in the Foyle, to which it has free access, is consequently much more considerable than in the Bann. This impediment, however, is in some degree obviated by the splendid harbour constructed at Portrush, a small town built on a peninsula of basalt, jutting a mile into the sea, and situated near the entrance to the Bann. This harbour is formed by two moles or breakwaters, one 800, the other 650 feet in length; the entrance is 200 feet wide, on which there is twenty-seven feet of water at ebb tide; it covers an area of eight acres, and vessels drawing from fifteen to twenty feet of water can lie afloat alongside the wharf. It cost £16,256, which was raised by shares of £100 each, under an Act of Parliament, and to which the revenue of the port is liable. Notwithstanding Portrush is so contiguous to Coleraine, and is also a branch of that port, yet it would be most desirable if this fine river, the Bann, was made navigable for large vessels to come up to the town. If the bar was removed, the river could be deepened by dredging at a moderate expense, and Coleraine would, from its natural position, lying so well for foreign trade with the north of Europe and America, and at home with the counties of Antrim and Derry and the extensive country to the north and north-west, would soon become a place of great commercial importance. John Boyd, Esq., the late active and intelligent representative of the borough, in 1850, introduced a Bill into parliament to effect this object, as well as for the improvement of Lough Neagh, but it was withdrawn, probably with an understanding that the government would ascertain if the intentions of the Bill could be carried into effect in a national point of view. An Admiralty survey of the Bann to the sea has been recently completed, and the Board of Works has been engaged in some extensive operations connected with Lough Neagh. It would be an undertaking of the first importance to open a communication between this inland sea, which occupies such an imposing position in the centre of Ulster, and the Atlantic Ocean, by means

of the Bann, which appears to have been formed as the natural channel, requiring but a moderate amount of manual exertion to unite them for naval purposes.

Under the difficulties which this port has to contend with, the imports and exports are but of limited amount. In 1832 it exported 36,888 barrels of wheat, oats, and barley, and 3,491 pigs; the following year the grain decreased to 27,132 barrels, but the pigs increased to 6,340, and there were also exported 9,000 firkins of butter. It has some foreign trade, principally with the Baltic, Archangel, and North America. For the five years ending 5th January, 1845, it imported foreign 3,173 pieces of square timber, 758 hundreds of deals, 528 hundreds of staves, 54 fathoms of lathwood, 3,037 hhds. flaxseed, 20 sacks of cloverseed, 101 bales of flax, 107 bales of hemp, 2,475 quarters of grain, 165 barrels of tar, and two hhds. of tallow. For the five years ending 5th January, 1850, it imported 4,741 pieces of square timber, being an increase of 1,568 pieces on the five previous years; 860 hundreds of deals, increase 102 hundreds; 338 hundreds of staves, decrease 190 hundreds; 76 fathoms of lathwood, increase 22 fathoms. There was no flaxseed imported foreign during these five years, which is very remarkable, and the cultivators of flax in the Coleraine district must have been supplied from Belfast or Londonderry, or the quantity of home-saved seed may have been sufficient for their purpose. The import of cloverseed was ten sacks, being a decrease of ten on the previous five years; 435 bales of flax, increase 334 bales; 756 bales of hemp, increase 649 bales; 36,458 quarters of grain and flour, increase 33,983 quarters; 620 barrels of tar, increase 455 barrels; 50 hogsheads of tallow, increase 48 hogsheads; and 250 tons of ice: this large quantity of ice is required for preserving the salmon taken here, which are exported chiefly to London and Liverpool. There was nothing exported foreign during these ten years; and to Great Britain the exports consisted of linen, linen yarn, flax, butter, salmon, and cattle. The imports were teas, sugars, coals, bark, hardware, earthenware, woollens, cottons, &c. Agreeable to the returns of the railway commissioners, the exports in 1835 amounted to £105,685, and the imports to £65,900. The general trade of the port, including Portrush, since 1840, will be shown by the following Tables:—

COLERAINE.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of this Port, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending, with the five preceding years.

Years ending January 1st.	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Shipping.	Customs' Duties collected.																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																				
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These Tables show, that during ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered this port from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 17,099 tons, of which 3,357 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coasting 13,902 tons: total Inwards 40,101 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 8,608 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 767 were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coasting 32,334 tons: total Outwards 881,592 tons. There were registered belonging to this port 145 vessels of 9,519 tons, and the Customs' Duties collected therein was £33,045. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade Inwards of 3,809 tons, of which 1,671 tons were Foreign shipping, and on that with Great Britain and Coasting of 20,982 tons: total increase Inwards 54,801 tons. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 2,930 tons, of which 617 tons were Foreign shipping; and on the British and Coasting trade 49,684 tons: total increase Outwards 48,014 tons. There appears to be a decrease of 7 vessels of 1,146 tons on the registered shipping, which is owing to the same vessels being registered annually; but the actual decrease of 1850 compared with 1845 was 4 vessels and 810 tons, and there was also a decrease on the Customs' duties of £747.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows:—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tnge.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Tnge.	Brit. and Foreign Tnge.	Coasting Tnge.	Foreign Tnge.	Brit. and Foreign Tnge.	Coasting Tnge.		
1851 ..	2,142	988	79,796 ..	1,166	568	46,145 ..	377	6,535
1852 ..	2,176	2,217	87,516 ..	789	1,847	55,638 ..	377	6,733
1853 ..	1,500	879	111,777 ..	1,017	206	57,803 ..	355	6,080
1854 ..	1,104	1,446	89,961 ..	865	1,453	4,637 ..	272	6,905

The Foreign trade therefore for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 4,864 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 125,941 tons. In 1852, the Foreign trade was 7,029 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 143,204 tons: being an increase on the former of 2,165 tons, and on the latter 17,263 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 3,602 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 169,580 tons: being a decrease of 3,427 tons on the Foreign, and on the British and Coasting trade an increase of 26,376 tons. In 1854 the Foreign trade was 4,868 tons; being an increase of 1,266 tons on that branch; but the British and Coasting trade was only 94,598 tons; being a decrease of 74,982 tons, which arises from the official return of the outward tonnage for this year being stated only at 4,637 tons, although the inward tonnage was 89,961 tons, and there is little doubt the outward has been returned in error. There has been also a decrease in the registered shipping since 1851, of one vessel and 105 tons, and there are eleven vessels to claim the 272 tons that remain, which would lead to the conclusion that they are fishing smacks, or at least not larger. The Customs duties had increased £370 as compared with 1851. Steamers ply weekly between Portrush, Liverpool, and Glasgow.

The Fisheries.—The salmon and eel fisheries on the Bann, from the sea to the salmon leap, a mile above Coleraine, are a source of considerable profit to the Irish Society, to whom they exclusively belong. In the original grant from James, all the fishings on the Bann to Lough Neagh were conveyed to the corporation of London, with those on the Foyle; and what is very remarkable,

three years after, the Society was offered by the parties in possession £1,000 per annum for them: an immense sum considering the then value of money, and that a large salmon could be purchased at from four-pence to eight-pence in Coleraine; the quantity then taken must have been very considerable. In 1691 these fisheries were let to Lord Massareene for two years, at £1,050 per annum. In 1708 they were let as high as £1,600 per annum. In 1722 the Society had the fisheries in their own hands, and disposed of all their salmon in London at £14 11s. per ton: the following year the produce, which in 1721 had been 120 tons, was now only 97½ tons, which was also sold in London at £15 per ton; but the charge attending that portion taken in Lough Foyle exceeded the proceeds. The Society finding the management of the fisheries not so profitable in their own hands, let them in 1729 to Alderman Jackson for twenty-one years, at £1,200 per annum. In 1735, however, they were again in the hands of the Society, and, strange to say, the London market not holding out a sufficient inducement to send the salmon there, the Society cured and packed it in casks with ice, and shipped it to Venice and Leghorn, where it only sold for £1,028. The following year another cargo was dispatched to the same markets, but the vessel was lost in the Adriatic, and only a portion of the fish saved in bad condition; the Society, however, was insured to the extent of £1,000. In 1755 the fisheries were let to Henry Hamilton for £910, who, as well as the tenant that preceded him, constructed traps on the rock called the salmon leap, which in 1771 were objected to by the Marquis of Donegall, in whom was the right of fishing on the Bann from the west side of the leap to Lough Neagh, and he instituted a suit at law to remove them, which continued for thirty years, in which time both plaintiff and defendant died, and left the question in dispute as it had been previous to the litigation. In 1811 these fisheries were let on lease, to expire in 1847, to Sir G. F. Hill for £1,250 per annum, and subsequently to Messrs. Allan and Gordon for £1,200 a year. The number of salmon taken in the Bann in 1843 was 21,660, but in the following year they decreased to 15,011, of which 13,464 were exported to England, and 1,545 sold in Coleraine. The fish, from their size and flavour, are held in high estimation. The rock,

or salmon leap is a mile from the town, in the direction of Lough Neagh, and where the fish were taken in traps, is called the cuts; but the principal place or cranagh where they are taken in nets, is two miles from the town in the direction of the sea. There are 300 persons appointed as water bailiffs in the protection of the river and its tributaries.

The Public Buildings are—the Town Hall, the Custom House, the Market House; the Union Workhouse, built to accommodate 920 inmates, was opened in April 1842: the Union contains an area of 112,365 acres, and a population of 42,841 persons; in twenty-two electoral divisions, represented by twenty-seven elected and twenty-seven *ex officio* guardians; the property subject to rates is valued at £77,394, and the rate in aid levied in 1851 and 1852, was £768 11s. 3d.

The Houses of Religious Worship are—three Presbyterian, two Protestant, and two Catholic Churches; one Independent, one Baptist, and one Wesleyan Meeting Houses. A presbytery of the general assembly of sixteen congregations hold their sittings here.

The Educational Institutions are—the National Schools, one of these, a Model School, has been recently opened at Killowen; a free or endowed School by the Irish Society, originally erected in 1705, was rebuilt in 1821 at its sole cost; and a boys and a girls school in Killowen, supported by the Society and the Clothworkers' company.

The amount of postage and excise collected in Coleraine for the four years ending 5th January, 1853, was—

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Postage	£938	996	996	1,088
Excise	27,799	35,984	37,240	39,328

The number of persons employed in collecting the customs' revenue of this port in 1849 was eleven, whose united salaries amounted to £668 3s. 6d.

The Provincial Bank of Ireland, the Northern Banking Company, and the Belfast Banking Company, have branches of their establishments here. The Savings' Bank, established in 1832, had 1,088 depositors in 1852, who had lodged £26,867 10s. 7d., at the rate of £2 18s. 4d. per cent. interest. There is a Newspaper, the Coleraine Chronicle, published here every Saturday.

LONDONDERRY.

LONDONDERRY, previous to planting "English law and civility" in Ulster, was simply called Derry, derived from the Irish word *Doire*, the place of Oaks. It was also called Derry Calgach, "the Oak wood of Calgach," as well as Derry Columbkille, from that saint having founded in 546 an abbey there. On James I. assigning it to the Corporation of London it was transformed into Londonderry, a name which was also extended to the county of Coleraine. It is a city and parliamentary borough, in the parish of Templemore, in the county of Londonderry, in latitude $54^{\circ} 59'$, longitude $7^{\circ} 19'$, and lies $118\frac{1}{2}$ miles N.N.W. of Dublin, and $69\frac{1}{2}$ of Belfast. It is situated on a hill, 119 feet high, over the river Foyle, which has its source in Lough Finn, and is called the river Finn until it reaches Lifford, where it is joined by the Mourne from the east, and flowing on, after forming the capacious harbour of Londonderry, falls into the Lough at Culmore, about four miles from the city. It is surrounded by a rampart a mile in circumference, with six gates, which is called the city within, but the most considerable part is outside, the walls. Its present municipal boundary contains an area of 497 acres within and without the walls, and 12,118 acres within the district, which constitutes the city and liberties of Londonderry. In 1831 the population of the city was 10,131 persons. In 1834 it had increased to 12,614, comprising 2,571 protestants, 7,098 catholics, and 2,945 presbyterians and other protestant dissenters. In 1841 the number of houses was 2,409, and the inhabitants 15,196. In 1851 the houses were 2,779, and the population 19,888: being an increase of 370 houses, and 4,692 persons. The total population of the city and liberties in 1851 was 23,772, against 20,379 in 1841—increase 3,393 persons. The charter granted by Charles II.,

in the 14th year of his reign, confirming that of James I., constituted the inhabitants a body corporate, to be styled the mayor, commonalty, and citizens of Londonderry, who returned two representatives to the Irish, and subsequently one to the United parliament. The present representative is Sir Robert Ferguson, residing near Derry. By the 2nd and 3rd of William IV. c. 88, the elective franchise was extended to £10 householders, and in 1834 there were 703 registered electors in the city, in 1849 they decreased to 568. In 1851 under 13th and 14th Vic., c. 69, they increased to 724, and in 1853 they still further increased to 823, of whom 100 were burgesses or freemen. This city and Belfast are the only boroughs in Ireland where an increase occurred in the constituencies since 1834: the others show a serious diminution, caused by the £10 rent qualification having been changed by the last act to an £8 rate to the poor. Belfast has, of course, increased its constituency with its population, which has more than doubled since 1831. Derry owes its ancient importance to the abbey established there by Columbkille. In 783 the town and abbey were both destroyed by fire. In 812 they endured the same fate at the hands of the Danes, who massacred a number of the monks and students. In 832 they again attacked the place but were routed with great slaughter by Niall, the Irish monarch. In 983 they carried off the shrine of the founder of the abbey. In 1095 it was again destroyed by fire. In 1100 Murtogh O'Brien attacked Derry with a large fleet of foreign ships, but was defeated with considerable loss by O'Loughlin, Prince of Aileach, who was himself slain in an assault on Derry in 1124. In 1135, and again in 1140, it was destroyed by fire. In 1158 Flaherty O'Brolchain, abbot of the Augustine monastery, was raised to the episcopacy, who removed eighty houses in the town, and erected the *Teampol-more*, or great Church, which was 240 feet in length, and was esteemed long after one of the most splendid edifices in the kingdom. The original abbey was subsequently distinguished as the Black Church. In 1166 a considerable portion of the town was destroyed by Rory O'Morna. In 1195 the abbey was plundered by De Courcy's Anglo-Normans, who were, however, intercepted and cut off near Armagh. In 1197 a similar force

plundered the town and churches, but was attacked by the Hy Niall at Faughanvale, where it was defeated with great slaughter. De Courcy soon after, in person, took the town, plundered the churches, and laid waste Innishown, but was called away by the defeat of a division of his troops by Hugh Oge O'Neill at Larne. In 1211 it was attacked by Thomas MacUrchty and the MacDonnell's, with seventy-six ships, who plundered the town and churches, and laid waste the whole peninsula. In 1213 the MacRandalls plundered the town and carried off the church plate from the cathedral. In 1218 a Cistercian convent was founded on the south side of the city, but the four masters say an establishment of that kind existed there long previously. In 1222 Neal O'Neill plundered the town. In 1274 a Dominican abbey was founded on the north side of the city. In 1311 Edward II. granted the city to Richard de Burgh, but from that period to the reign of Elizabeth the English had no settlement in Derry. In 1565 England, being in close alliance with Shane O'Neill, under the pretence of chastising the Scots of the Glynn's, and the Western Isles, dispatched a force of 1,000 infantry and 200 cavalry, under Colonel Randolph, which landed in the Foyle, and took possession of Derry. As the real intention of this force was to curb the power of O'Neill and introduce the protestant religion into Ulster, those who composed it had little respect for the abbey or sacred groves of Columbkille—the former they used as a depôt where they lodged their powder and other military stores, and fortified themselves in the town. O'Neill became alarmed; he marched a force to the Foyle, and while deliberating on the course he should pursue, some of his men advanced towards the English quarters and provoked Randolph, who sallied out on them, but was himself killed in the skirmish. Notwithstanding the difficulties the garrison had now to encounter, it maintained its position until by an accident the powder lodged in the *Teampolmore* blew up with considerable loss of life, and those who survived the disaster abandoned the place as untenable. The vulgar, however, attributed this explosion not to accident, but to the indignation of Columbkille at the desecration of his holy places, according to whom "a huge wolf issuing from the neighbouring woods with a

burning torch in its mouth rushed into the church and flung the brand amidst the powder, which exploding, blew up the church and the soldiers who were in it." But the designs of the English government to form a strong garrison on the northern coast of Ulster were not to be thus thwarted. The benefits resulting to England from such a fortress as Carrickfergus, on the north-east coast, were but too apparent. This stronghold had been almost invariably in the hands of the English from the date of the Anglo-Norman invasion. A constant communication was kept up between it and Chester, from whence it derived its supplies of men and military stores, and it often occurred that the garrison held out for the English when they had not another inch of territory in Ulster. The successes of O'Neill and O'Donnell towards the close of Elizabeth's reign, rendered such a garrison on the north coast absolutely necessary to favour her designs in subjugating Ulster. Accordingly, in 1600, a powerful armament, destined for Lough Foyle, was fitted out at Chester, consisting of 3,000 infantry and 200 cavalry, under Sir Henry Docwra, which were embarked on sixty-seven vessels, and arrived in Carrickfergus Bay, where it was joined by 1,000 additional troops, and, having taken on board some pieces of ordnance and military stores, proceeded to Lough Foyle and effected a landing at Culmore, where Docwra commenced building that fort. O'Neill and O'Donnell were fighting their last fight at the Moyry pass when this armament arrived in the Foyle, and O'Dogherty and O'Cahan, the more immediate chieftains who might have been able to repel a smaller invading force, were quite astonished at the magnitude of this armament, and offered no resistance until Docwra commenced fortifying the hill of Derry, when he sent armed parties into O'Cahan's country to cut down his timber for the purpose; and then, according to Sir Henry's own account, "there was not a stick of it brought home that was not well fought for." Docwra so effectually removed the ruins of the *Teampolmore*, and the other ancient churches, which Randolph had previously occupied, to make good his fortifications, that the sites can scarcely now be traced, but it is supposed that the present Catholic church and cemetery outside the walls, have been erected thereon. Docwra's instructions were,

that, as soon as he had established himself in Derry, he was to detach 1,000 foot and 50 horse, under Sir Mathew Morgan, to effect a landing at Ballyshannon; but he found his position so difficult that he could not spare this detachment, or attempt, even with the immense force he had at his command, any military operations towards reducing the surrounding country. During the three years he held possession of Derry, he appears to have devoted himself to rendering it a place of commercial importance. He obtained a charter for the city, which extended many valuable rights and privileges to the inhabitants, and patents for holding markets and other advantages; and modern Derry may be said to have derived its origin from his exertions. On the termination of the war in 1603, O'Neill and O'Donnell having rendered fealty to the English monarch, the troops in Derry were withdrawn, with the exception of 350 foot and 100 horse. Whether Docwra expected a renewal of hostilities, and that a force so small was inadequate to the defence of the place, or that he was influenced by other motives, in 1604 he sold to Sir George Powlett of Hampshire, his commission, with his house and lands; and having appointed him vice-provoost of Derry returned to England. Powlett had neither time or disposition to follow up the prudent policy observed by his predecessor; he was a rough soldier, and the flight of O'Neill and O'Donnell rendered him still more imperious to those Irish chieftains, who still clung to their native land. Among these was Sir Cahir O'Dogherty, the young and valiant prince of Innishown, whom he personally insulted, and who, indignant at his brutal conduct, in 1608 attacked and took the fort of Culmore, as well as the city of Derry by assault; putting Powlett and his garrison to the sword, and reducing the lately formed city to ashes. For five months O'Dogherty carried on a successful warfare, taking several English military stations; but in one of these engagements he was shot through the head and his followers dispersed, many of whom fell by the hands of the executioner. This was the last blow struck for independence in Ulster, and nothing now stood in the way of James introducing at his leisure his favourite plan for the reformation of that province. The circumstances which led to the flight of O'Neill and O'Donnell, and the confiscation of 500,000 acres of land in six of the northern

counties, a considerable portion of which, including Derry and Coleraine, had been assigned to the corporation of London, have been fully detailed in the preceding history of Coleraine. It will only be therefore necessary to refer to the most remarkable events that took place in Londonderry, under its new masters, the Irish Society. The first act of the Society in respect to Derry, was to obtain the surrender of the charter granted to Docwra, and the extension of a new one forming a corporation there, but reserving to itself almost unlimited control over its proceedings. The representatives of both Derry and Coleraine were appointed by it, and their expenses paid for attending parliament. In 1615 the Society sent precepts to all the companies, "requiring each of them to send into Ulster, one or two artisans and their families to settle there; and also in order that Derry might not in future be peopled by Irish, that twelve poor children of Christ's Hospital, and others should be sent there as apprentices and servants, and the inhabitants were to be prohibited from taking Irish apprentices." In 1616 the twelve children from Christ's Hospital arrived, ten of whom were apprenticed in Derry, and two in Coleraine. The Commissioners appointed by the Society granted 500 acres of land, formerly the property of Rory O'Kane, forfeited under a criminal conviction to the Recorder Carey during his life, at a rent of £5 6s. 8d. in lieu of salary, and allotted 300 acres of land for a free school to be built at the expense of Mr. Springham. In 1617 the corporation of Londonderry presented a petition to the commissioners appointed by the Crown, to inquire into the affairs of the plantation, complaining of numerous grievances which it sustained by the conduct of the Society. In 1618 Nicholas Pynnar made a survey of the London companies plantations in Ulster. In 1619 he reported that "the city of Londonderry was encompassed with a strong wall 24½ feet high, well and neatly made of good stone and lime, being 284½ perches in circumference, besides the four gates, which contained eighty-four feet. The gates were all battlemented, but there was no access to two of them, neither were there any leaves for the gates, but two drawbridges served for two of them, and two portcullises for the other two. The bulwarks were good and large, being nine in number, besides two half bulwarks; eight of which

were fit for the reception of a cannon each. The rampart within the city was twelve feet thick of earth: all things were well and substantially done, but there were required a house for the soldiers to watch in, and a sentinel house for the soldiers to stand in, to protect them from the weather at night, which was most extreme in these parts." In 1622 the town-house of Derry was erected by the Society. In 1632 Londonderry was sequestered, and Dr. Bramhall, Bishop of Derry, was appointed to receive the rents for the King's use. In 1637 Charles I., by letters patent, passed a portion of the seven quarters of lands called the 1,500 acres, reserving out of part thereof, a rent of £90 10s. to the mayor and commonalty of Londonderry. In 1638 the city was seized into the hands of the King, and the Bishop of Derry applied on behalf of himself, the corporation, and two other persons for a licence to grant leases, which was complied with, and the Bishop made a lease of the 1,500 acres to the corporation for sixty years, at the yearly rent of £50. A civil war, or as it was called, the Irish Rebellion of 1641, ensued, the natural consequence of the hopeful schemes that James had introduced for the settlement of Ulster, and the unsettled state that property in every other part of the kingdom had been placed in, by the legalized robberies committed by himself, his officials, discoverers, and other spoliators. It was a war commenced by a nation of men, against whom had been perpetrated the most dreadful enormities, who had been stripped of their properties, the inheritance of their fathers, and driven to the woods, the mountains, and the wilds, to associate with beasts and birds of prey; and with the most superlative hypocrisy these atrocities were committed under the pretence of civilizing them. During the progress of this rebellion, the city of London sent four ships to Londonderry, with provisions, clothing, and munitions of war. The twelve companies sent each two pieces of ordnance: there were besides, twenty pieces of artillery there, which the Irish Society had provided the city with some years previously, and which, in all probability, saved it, when besieged, from falling into the hands of the Irish. In 1687 the Bishop of Derry laid claim to the quarter-lands, which became the subject of a long and expensive litigation, that terminated in the rejection of his claim. A *quo warranto* was this year brought against the corpora-

tion. In 1689 Londonderry was besieged. The inhabitants of this city viewed with considerable discontent the accession of James II. to the throne : and their disaffection increased when Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnell, was appointed lord-lieutenant. Tyrconnell, however, although a rigid catholic was no bigot ; he was greatly attached to his sovereign, but still more to his country ; he possessed considerable talents and address, and was well suited to figure in the times in which he lived. He was born sometime previous to the war of the confederates, and when a mere boy he had a commission in a regiment of horse, which escaped from Drogheda when it was sacked by Cromwell. The cruelties he witnessed there and on subsequent occasions inflamed him with a spirit of hostility to English tyranny, and an abhorrence of religious fanaticism, which powerfully influenced him in his subsequent career. When the cause of the Stuarts was lost in Ireland through the pusillanimity and bigotry of the Duke of Ormond, he joined his sovereign in exile on the Continent, and made the friendship of his brother in the days of their mutual adversity. At the restoration he took a leading part in the ranks of those who relied on the fulfilment by Charles II. of the articles of peace promulgated by Ormond in 1648, as the just reward of the loyalty of the Irish catholics to his father, but that monarch became the patron of the English protestant interest in Ireland, and the rights of the catholics were held in abeyance. Talbot was one of the agents appointed by his suffering countrymen to appeal against the intended act of settlement. Perceiving their suit ill received, his party came to the reasonable conclusion that Ormond was privately using his influence against them. Talbot remonstrated with him, and finding that his arguments made no impression on the wily courtier, he taxed him with his duplicity, and sent him a challenge, which Ormond declined accepting, and complained to the privy council, by whom Talbot was immediately committed to the Tower, and was obliged to make an humble submission before he was restored to liberty. Subsequently he was arrested as one of the conspirators in the Titus Oates plot, but so little could be adduced against him, that he was allowed to return to Ireland, where he gave every opposition to Ormond's government ; and on the prompt removal

of that nobleman by James II., who was replaced by the Earl of Clarendon, Talbot was made Earl of Tyrconnell, and lieutenant-general of the army in Ireland. Clarendon did not continue long chief governor, and on his retirement Tyrconnell was appointed thereto, being the first Catholic lord-lieutenant since the reformation. Anonymous letters, although the weakest of all devices, were favourite auxiliaries with the Anglo-Irish protestants to favour their designs. One of these had been instrumental in forcing O'Neill and and O'Donnell into exile, and another was now concocted and addressed to Lord Mount Alexander, and to others in the north, announcing that a general massacre of the protestants was intended by the Irish on Sunday, 9th December, 1688. The style was coarse and vulgar, and evidently fabricated for a sinister purpose, but they were found useful in spreading terror and alarm among the protestant population not immediately in the plot. It was about this period that intelligence arrived of the landing of the Prince of Orange in England, and that James had fled to France. Tyrconnell on the occasion showed considerable address by expressing a desire for an amicable arrangement with William, by which means he allayed the fears and alarms of the protestants, while he continued to strengthen the army with his catholic adherents. He opened negotiations with both James and William, and appears to have been disposed at one time to surrender the government to the latter, who offered the catholics full protection of person and property, equal civil rights with the protestants, and possession of one-third the churches for the celebration of their religious worship. Had these terms been made by an agent more devoted to William's interest than Richard Hamilton, they would, in all probability, have been accepted. Hamilton, who was a man of ability and a most efficient officer, was liberated from prison by William, and dispatched from London to negotiate with Tyrconnell and offer him these conditions. On his arrival in Dublin, however, he formed an opinion that the Irish party favourable to James was sufficiently strong to restore him, and he dissuaded Tyrconnell from submitting to William. To show his sincerity in the cause he entered the Irish army, and commanded James's forces in the north in 1689, and

subsequently a division of cavalry at the Boyne, where he made those brilliant charges which compelled the Danish horse to recross the river, and strange enough, was, later in the action, taken prisoner by William in person. Londonderry, towards the close of 1688, was garrisoned by a regiment principally composed of protestants, commanded by Lord Mountjoy, son of Primate Boyle. Tyrconnell, without replacing it by another in which he could confide, had it recalled to Dublin; he soon, however, perceived the error he had committed, and detached the Earl of Antrim's regiment, 1,200 strong, composed of Irish and Scotch catholics, to take their quarters in Derry. On its march it arrived at Limavaddy at the time that Lord Mount Alexander's anonymous letter had obtained publicity, and the proprietor of the village, no doubt well informed on the subject, dispatched a messenger express to the citizens with the most alarming and exaggerated account of this force, and recommending them to shut their gates against it. The inhabitants had already collected in the street, and were deliberating on the propriety of having recourse to this step. Some were resolute, some wavering, and others anxious to exclude it without compromising themselves in the attempt. The bishop was consulted, and he recommended peace and submission, and some of the graver citizens concurred with him. The troops in the meantime approached: two of their officers were already in the town to provide quarters, and their advanced guard appeared within 300 yards of the ferry gate. At this critical moment nine young men of the assembled populace, with enthusiastic ardour, snatched up the keys of the city, raised the drawbridge and locked the ferry gate, and were soon joined by numbers of their townsmen. These assembled in the square, and deaf to all timid councils and entreaties, seized the magazine; and their numbers hourly increasing, both in the town and from the neighbouring districts, they selected as Governor, Phillips, of Limavaddy, who first encouraged them to the enterprise, and declared for a resolute defence. The magazine afforded them arms and a small quantity of ammunition, and they threatened to fire on the King's troops should they approach the walls. They transmitted an account of their proceedings to the Society in London; and Cairnes, the most considerable

of their party, was deputed to solicit succour from the Prince of Orange. At the same time the magistrates and graver citizens, apprehensive of the consequences of an enterprise commenced under such disadvantages, addressed themselves to Mountjoy to mediate with Tyrconnell. They represented their inability to restrain the populace, terrified by the rumours of a massacre and the outrages attributed to the newly-raised regiment, and declared their resolution to confine themselves to self-defence, without violating their allegiance to their sovereign. Tyrconnell dispatched Mountjoy, with Lundy, his lieutenant-colonel, and six companies, with orders to reduce the city: after various conferences Mountjoy was admitted, on condition that a free pardon should be granted within fifteen days, and in the meantime two companies only should be quartered in the city; that the forces admitted should be composed, at least, of one-half protestants; that until the pardon arrived the citizens should keep the guards, and all persons be allowed to depart who wished to do so. The lord-lieutenant had now the mortification to see that the people of Derry were assuming a spirit of dictation as to the modelling of his forces, and he peremptorily refused the conditions. Mountjoy, however, assumed the command of the city, and by his advice the arms in it were repaired, ammunition purchased in Scotland, and Cairnes earnestly solicited to obtain supplies. It is strange, however, after these demonstrations, that he should have abandoned the command of the garrison, which was now confided to Lundy; who flattered the protestants by declarations of attachment to their cause, but he was suspected, notwithstanding, of being favourably disposed towards James. An officer of the name of Hamilton arrived in Derry with arms, ammunition, and money, and a commission from William to Lundy appointing him to the command of the city, and ordering him to administer the necessary oaths to all the officers, civil and military. Some refused to take the oaths: Lundy himself would not consent to take them publicly, alleging that he had already done so on board of Hamilton's ship. Considerable discontent was thus excited, and many prepared to abandon a city about to be betrayed. Their confidence, however, was restored by the arrival of Cairnes, with assurances from William that troops and supplies were prepared

for their relief, and conjuring them by no means to desert a cause so glorious, and which must soon prove triumphant. The arrival, however, of James in Ireland early in 1689, and the flattering reception given him by all classes of his Irish subjects in the south, as well as in the metropolis, created considerable alarm and paralyzed the recent spirit infused into the garrison. James, after creating Tyrconnell a duke, and performing some other formal acts of sovereignty, among which was summoning a parliament to assemble in the capital on the 7th May, now directed his attention to the reduction of the northern province; and as Londonderry was considered the focus of rebellion, he determined to appear before it in person, and awe the stubborn and refractory insurgents into submission. Hamilton, who had the command of James's forces in the north, had cleared the whole of the province of William's adherents, with the exception of Enniskillen and Londonderry. He was now approaching the latter place, and Lundy, who had posted his troops on the Finn to intercept him, was obliged to retreat, and enclose himself within the walls of Derry. James now joined the army with Marshal Rosen, who was appointed to conduct the siege. Among those who had taken up arms against James was George Walker, a protestant clergyman of the county Tyrone: he raised a regiment, which he commanded, and was enthusiastic in the cause he had espoused. He was now shut up in Derry with Lundy, whose sincerity he doubted, notwithstanding his professions and affected vigour. At this critical moment two English regiments arrived in the Foyle: their commanders communicated with Lundy, whose orders they were instructed to obey: he invited them with their officers to land, but to allow the troops to remain on board. A council of war was held, consisting of eleven officers from the ships and five of the garrison, who pronounced the place untenable, and that landing these reinforcements would be only placing them in the hands of the enemy, and that the principal officers should withdraw and leave the inhabitants to make the best terms they could with the besiegers. These resolutions were communicated to the town council, where it was resolved to offer terms of capitulation to James, who was advancing slowly towards the city. These proceedings incensed the majority of the inhabitants:

they saw the reinforcements about to return to England, with the provisions intended for their relief, and their leaders preparing to leave them to their fate. They vowed vengeance against the governor, the council, and every suspected officer : one of these they slew as he was hastening from the city, and wounded another. In this moment of distraction, Murray, a brave and popular officer, arrived with some troops, and although Lundy ordered him to retire, he entered the city amidst the acclamations of the people, and of the military. While he expostulated with Lundy against the baseness of surrendering the place, they rushed to the walls, and fired upon the advanced guard of James's army, which had approached to take possession of the city. The more cautious and timid of the inhabitants, however, sent a deputation to the monarch to apologize for this violence, which they attributed to a headstrong and ungovernable populace. But the governor, council, and magistrates had lost all authority, and the garrison now appointed two new governors : the Rev. George Walker and a Major Baker, that if either should fall they might not be left without a commander. By their direction the garrison was formed into eight regiments, amounting to 7,020 men, and 341 officers. Lundy had already escaped to the ships in disguise, and all those disposed to follow were allowed to do so without molestation. The stores were viewed, and it was found there was not a supply of more than ten or twelve days provisions in the city, for the garrison and inhabitants. Among the besieged there were no less than eighteen protestant and non-conforming clergymen, who in turn daily collected the people in the cathedral, and exhorted them to resistance ; but their common danger could scarcely prevent religious dissension from creating disunion, and one of the non-conformists pronounced from the pulpit all those unworthy to fight for the protestant cause who would not take the covenant. James remained only eleven days before this city, in which time a succession of assaults were made, which were bravely repulsed by the garrison ; but the besiegers must have been destitute of artillery, even of ordinary *calibre*, or a place so ill-conditioned for a siege could not have held out so long ; and it might be pronounced, without any treachery on the part of Lundy and his council of war, as untenable, which it would have

unquestionably proved to be, had it been properly invested. James returned to Dublin with the empty honour of having reduced the fort of Culmore, and the garrison of Derry continued to defeat every attempt of the besiegers to take it, and to harass them by successful sallies. But it was now threatened with more destructive and formidable foes—disease and famine had commenced their ravages; the summer heat operating on men worn down by watching and fatigue, and an unwholesome and scanty supply of food, brought on diseases of the most virulent character. In their affliction, and with the most melancholy forebodings of the future, they discovered a large fleet in Lough Foyle, which they doubted not had been sent from England for their relief—nor were they wrong in their conjectures, as that was indeed its destination, and contained troops, arms, ammunition, and provisions, under the command of Major-General Kirk, who, however, considered relieving the city impracticable, as the enemy occupied both sides of the river, and from two opposite forts stretched a boom across formed of beams of timber, joined by iron chains, and secured by strong cables. The answers he returned to the signals of the besieged were most discouraging, and in a few days the fleet disappeared from the Lough altogether. This was most disheartening to the garrison, which was still further discouraged by intelligence from Kirk, to the effect that, finding it impossible to force the passage of the Foyle, he had sailed to Lough Swilly to supply, if possible, the garrison of Enniskillen, but on the arrival of vessels from England, better suited for the purpose, he would again endeavour to relieve Londonderry, and recommended the garrison to husband its provisions, and hold out with resolution. Every day, however, it was lessened by disease, and the wretched survivors more and more enfeebled by fatigue and hunger. Baker, one of the governors died, and Michelborne, an officer of some note, was chosen to succeed him. When numbers were scarcely able to support their arms, they threatened death to any who should offer to surrender. General Hamilton from without endeavoured to move them by persuasion, while Rosen menaced them with the severest punishments. Incensed at their obstinacy, he declared that if they did not surrender by the 1st July, all the protestants of the district should be driven under

the walls, where they might allow them either to perish, or admit them into the city where their fate was equally certain, and would hasten the catastrophe, to which the garrison was fast approaching. The appointed day arrived, but the defence was still continued; and on the following morning Rosen put his threat into execution. A confused multitude of men, women, and children were driven under the walls, and the besieged, infuriated by the afflicting spectacle, threatened to put to death the prisoners in their hands, if they were not allowed to depart; but Rosen continued unmoved. The intelligence, however, of his intention had been transmitted to Dublin, and James sent orders that the people should be released, and allowed to proceed to their homes. Some of the ablest men, however, were allowed to enter the city, and several useless persons passed with them, notwithstanding the vigilance of the garrison, which contributed still more to its embarrassments. The situation of the besieged became now most awful: their scanty rations had been exhausted for some time, and they were reduced to feed on the flesh of horses, dogs, vermin, hides, and tallow. Horseflesh was sold at 1s. 8d. per lb., a quarter of a dog at 5s. 6d., his head at 2s. 6d., a cat 4s. 6d., a rat 1s., a mouse 6d., a pound of salted hides 1s., a pound of tallow 4s., a quart of horse blood 1s., a handful of seaweed 2d., and of chickenweed 1d. On the 30th July there were only nine lean horses left, and one pint of meal for each man of the garrison, when Kirk, who had abandoned them from 13th June, at length thought fit to make a hazardous attempt to relieve them: two armed ships, laden with provisions, and conveyed by the Dartmouth frigate, advanced to force the boom. On the success of this attempt, the fate of the besieged depended, and they witnessed it with the most breathless anxiety, while the besiegers kept up an incessant fire from their batteries, and from the troops along shore. One of the vessels ran against the boom and broke it, but rebounding, struck the ground, and James's soldiers prepared to board her: the garrison was crowded on the walls, and now stood paralysed with despair. The vessel, by firing her guns, was extricated, and she was again afloat, and soon passed the boom, followed by her companions. The garrison was thus relieved, and the besieging army retired to Strabane,

having sustained a considerable loss in men, and more in military reputation. When the garrison, which had distinguished itself so much by its vigorous defence, under such appalling circumstances, was relieved at the end of 105 days, hunger and disease had so reduced it, that of 7,361 men and officers regimented at the commencement of the siege, only 4,300 survived, and of these more than 1,000 were incapable of service. On the 12th August, 1689, William addressed a letter to the Rev. George Walker and Captain Michelborne, the governors, complimenting them on their resolute defence of the city. Walker was subsequently appointed to the bishopric of Derry, with a present of £5,000, and received the thanks of the House of Commons for his conduct of the siege, and the University of Oxford created him a D. D. On his return to Ireland he joined William's army, and was killed at the battle of the Boyne. In 1690 the Irish Society and the London Companies contributed £100 each towards repairing the injuries sustained by the city during the siege. In 1695 the Society served an ejectment on the Bishop of Derry for the resumption of the 1,500 acres, of which it had been deprived in the reign of Charles I., and obtained possession of them the following year. In 1697 the bishop appealed to the Irish House of Lords from the decision of the chancellor, and an order was obtained for re-establishing him in possession, which was opposed by the sheriffs, who were taken into custody and brought to Dublin. In 1703 this suit was compromised by the bishop accepting £250 a year, and the fee of the bishop's house and gardens to him and his successors, from the Society, who now resumed possession of the lands in dispute. In 1736 the differences between the Irish Society and the Corporation of Londonderry in respect to its bye-laws first manifested itself, and the Society threatened to withhold the annuity of £90 10s., which the corporation received out of the quarter lands. In 1739 the Society ruled that only four honorary freemen should be elected yearly by the corporation. In 1740 the corporation repealed the obnoxious bye-law, which being approved of by the Society, the payment of the £90 10s. was resumed. The quays were repaired by votes of the Irish parliament in 1765, 1767, and 1771, which amounted to £4,590 15s. In 1773 the Society and London Companies became alarmed, and prepared to oppose a

tax then intended by the Irish parliament against absentee landlords. In 1778 volunteer corps were formed in Londonderry. In 1779 the Lords and Commons of Ireland passed votes of thanks to the volunteers, which were communicated to the Londonderry corps by Mr. Thomas Connolly of Castletown, one of their members, and by the sheriffs of the city. In 1780 the Society contributed £100 towards the volunteer association. In 1788 the Society gave £50 to celebrate the centenary of closing the gates of Derry, 7th December, 1688, and the corporation solicited the Society to concur with it in erecting a triumphal arch in memory of William III. In 1789 the Society granted the corporation a lease of the tolls of the ferry in perpetuity, to enable it to borrow money thereon to build the proposed bridge across the Foyle, which was constructed at Boston, in the United States, at a cost of £11,000, and was brought to Londonderry the same year, and opened for passengers in 1791. It is composed of wood, 1,068 feet in length, and 40 feet in breadth, and connects the city with the village of Waterside, on the east bank of the Foyle; on the city side is a turning bridge, which was subsequently substituted for the original drawbridge, and regulates the free navigation of the river: the total cost of these works amounted to £16,594. In 1814 a portion of 350 feet of the bridge was carried away by large masses of ice floating down the river, urged forward with great force by the ebb tide and a strong wind. The repairs amounted to £18,208, being more than the original cost; the government advanced on loan £15,000 of the latter sum. The average amount of tolls from 1831 to 1834 was £3,693 per annum. In 1828 the Walker testimonial, on the central western bastion, was completed at an expense of £1,200 raised by subscription; it consists of a column of Portland stone of good proportions, in the Doric style of architecture, surmounted by a statue of the governor, nine feet in height, including which the column measures ninety feet. It is rather an extraordinary circumstance connected with the siege of Londonderry, that distinctions, honours, and emoluments were heaped on one of the governors while living, and testimonials and monuments erected to his memory 140 years after his death, while the other governor, Michelborne, who lived as well as Walker to see the siege raised,

and by whose skill, in all probability, the place was so ably defended, he being a military man by profession, that little compensation was made him when living, and no tribute of respect paid to his memory when dead. William advanced him merely to the rank of colonel, and on his applying to the Irish Society to recommend him to that monarch, to appoint him governor of Culmore Fort, it peremptorily refused to do so, under the flimsy excuse that no fort would be required there for the future; notwithstanding that, subsequently, it agreed to pay a governor £200 a year, and allow him 300 acres of land attached to this fort, which it continues to pay even to the present day.

The Corporation of Londonderry for two centuries had been nothing more than the nominal creation of the Irish Society, and impelled only as its interests or policy dictated. It is true, it had a charter granted by James I., and confirmed by Charles II., but the corporate body had scarcely any real power under it. By this charter the corporation was styled "the mayor, commonalty, and citizens of the city of Londonderry," and consisted of a mayor, a recorder, twelve aldermen, and twenty-four burgesses, two sheriffs, who were also sheriffs of the county, and a chamberlain. This body, with the freemen, returned to parliament the nominees of the Society. But with the spirit of reform, which dictated so great a change in the corporate monopolies of the country, the Irish Society was obliged to relax its authority over the corporation, which now consists of a mayor, six aldermen, and eighteen councillors elected from the three wards, north, east, and south, into which the city is divided, under 3 and 4 Vic., c. 108. The mayor is annually elected by the aldermen and councillors; twelve borough magistrates, appointed by the Lord Lieutenant, and the magistrates of the county, whose jurisdiction extends to the city. The mayor, while in office, is a magistrate of the county. The jealousies and disputes which from time to time occurred between the Society and the corporation appear latterly to have widened into a complete breach, and accusations and recriminations have been profusely resorted to by both. Times have greatly changed when a mayor of Londonderry dared to publish such a statement, or the corporation to follow

* it up by such charges against the Society as the following:—

“ At a time when an incapable government is allowing a people to starve before the eyes of the civilized world, and when agrarian murder is scattering destruction through the land, why do they not sequester the possessions of the Society—it was done before by Charles the Martyr—and divide them in fee farms among the people, of course giving the London shopkeepers what their predecessors paid for the estates, and the value of their permanent improvements? But let me be understood to speak only of an absentee corporation of English traders, men who confer on our country no protection by their power and no glory by their station. I do not speak of those descendants of the original planters, who, born on our soil, have a title that no human being can question or doubt, and amongst whom have been found some of our most distinguished patriots, orators, and soldiers. But the incongruity of a set of London tradesmen squandering our revenues upon their city or their appetites is too great, and the injustice too monstrous, to be endured by any but a nation of the most spiritless slaves. Do the Irish people deserve the name?” And the corporation, following up these opinions, charges the Society with being incapable, from the nature of its constitution, of rendering the country any permanent benefit; that, by its own published accounts, it admits having received for the nine years ending March, 1833, a sum of £77,000 from its estates in Ireland, while not more than £8,000 was expended in it, which is stated to have been appropriated to schools and public charities, but not a shilling expended on improving the farm offices or houses of the tenants on its estates. The Society has published a reply to these charges, to the effect, “ that whether the colonization of the County Derry from the City of London, and the ramifications of the plan prescribed by the charter were theoretically wise, is not to be argued; it is obvious that it has been practically beneficial, and the present state of that county, which is the most peaceable and orderly in its conduct, and is an example to be pointed out to all the other parts of Ireland, plainly shows the benefits which have resulted from it. The present unfortunate situation of the corporation of Derry is certainly an exception, but it has been clearly shown not to have been produced by the Society, but by their own profuse expendi-

ture and gross misapplication of the funds confided to their management. The nine years' accounts referred to, instead of £8,000, show that upwards of £35,000 have been expended in Ireland by the Society, and their lands are let upon such easy terms and upon such leases, as to make it the interest of the tenants to build." There can be no doubt of the short-sightedness and stupidity of James I. when he assigned to the London companies and their representatives the Irish Society (who must of necessity be absentees), such immense properties as those which they now possess, or have sold their interest in for valuable consideration; such as the Goldsmiths' Company, who, as early as 1730, disposed of their manor of Goldsmiths' Hall to the Earl of Shelburne for £14,100; the Vintners, who, in 1736, sold their portion of Ballaghey to Mr. Connolly of Castletown for £15,000; and the Haberdashers' and Merchant Tailors, who, for equally large sums, sold their proportions to the Beresfords, the Richardsons, and Alexanders. The Ironmongers' and the Skinners' too, contrived to obtain immense fines, and still kept the fee in their own hands: the former, in 1767, were paid a fine of £21,000 for a lease of their estate for three lives or sixty-one years, by an India nabob who never saw it, and the latter even exceeded them, by obtaining a fine of £25,000 on a terminable lease of theirs, from a Mr. Ogilvie, a Dublin linen factor. These sums remunerated them handsomely for their original investments of £3,333 6s. 8d. But as it is not in the nature of absenteeism to produce good landlords, how was it possible for the Society to escape the common lot of all? The question now resolves itself into this consideration—Is the Society even among the better or more liberal description of absentee landlords? It takes merit to itself for letting its lands upon such leases, and at such easy rents, that it is the interest of the tenants to improve them. But since the publication of this controversy with the corporation, it has been asserted, "That no lands in that part of the country are more highly rented, and no tenantry more disposed to speak unfavourably of landlords." And this is an evil of long standing, if the authority of a former secretary to the Society, who wrote a narrative of an excursion he made in 1803 to the North of Ireland, is to

be relied on. He states, that "having arrived at Kilrea, a market town, and a portion of the Mercers' Company's estate, held by a Mr. Stewart under them, and being struck with the poverty of the place, he communicated with the master of the inn as to the cause, who observed, 'that it could not be otherwise in a part of the country where they never saw the face of the owner of the soil, or even his under-tenant;'" and Mr. Secretary Slade continues to say that "this is a grievance greatly felt in the north of Ireland, but more particularly in those parts which belong to the city companies, and he became impressed with a greater degree of indulgence for the poverty, ignorance, and laziness of the lower order of the people, who toil for a miserable subsistence, and see the fruits of their labour carried off from time to time by an agent of their landlord, to be spent in a foreign country; while the same description of people in England are cheered by a hospitable reception in the hall of their landlord when they come to pay their rent; derive benefit from his expenditure and example; and in case of petty disputes find an honest magistrate, a kind landlord, and a well-informed neighbour to reconcile their differences and prevent little misunderstandings from growing into rancour and the spirit of revenge." The Derry corporation could scarcely say more against absenteeism than this, or adduce stronger proofs of the incompetency and grinding disposition of the London companies to rack-rent their tenants without the slightest consideration for their personal comforts or the improvement of their own estates. But the sleeky secretary could not tell a little truth without varnishing it with the favourite English calumny, attributing *laziness* to the Irish people; although he, in the same breath, contradicts himself, by stating that they toil hard, and see the fruits of their labour carried off by the agents of absentee landlords. The Society, as far as in it lay, early attempted to extinguish the Irish population on its plantation of Londonderry by its precept, directing the several companies to not only send over English artizans, but also the children from Christ's Hospital, and other charitable London Institutions, as servants and apprentices, and prohibiting the inhabitants from taking Irish apprentices. But on this particular plantation the Irish, like Sampson's hair, grew thick and strong;

and not only has the city been peopled by the Irish, but, sad to relate, in 1834 a majority of the whole population were Irish catholics, and even within the walls they exceeded in number the protestants. Notwithstanding that these London companies have been enriched, and now derive such immense incomes from the partition of the once princely properties of the O'Neills and O'Donnells, they have no feeling for Ireland or for Irishmen. To no national undertaking or individual enterprise likely to benefit the country do they contribute a shilling. There may be men among them of liberal dispositions, but their affairs are managed and regulated in a great measure by their secretaries, who are neither drapers, skimmers, or ironmongers, but crafty, plodding attorneys, who contrive to enrich themselves out of the funds and properties, these companies have acquired. They are sumptuously lodged in their halls, which are stately mansions, situated almost in every street of the old city of London. Their *hauteur* and arrogance, and their hatred of every thing Irish, except the incomes derived from the companies' Irish estates, is but too apparent; indeed, they take so little trouble to disguise it, that one of these worthies on the application of an Irishman, in respect to what could be scarcely termed a favour, declared that "he and the company did not care a rush if Ireland was at the bottom of the sea." He would not, like the late Sir Joseph Yorke, have limited the submersion to twenty-four hours, nothing less than making it a permanent submarine fixture would satisfy his ire against poor Old Ireland. In this category there are three honourable exceptions; Messrs. Robert and William Beckwith Towse, secretaries to the clothworkers' and fishmongers' companies, and Mr. J. Davis, secretary to the Irish Society.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—The Linen trade took root early in Londonderry and the neighbouring district, and a great portion of the population was through a series of years, and is still, beneficially employed in the manufacture. There are now two large flax spinning mills in full operation, employing upwards of 800 hands, principally females. Previous to 1825 the quantity of oatmeal manufactured here was inadequate to the home consumption, but the introduction of improved machinery enabled the

Irish millers to manufacture oatmeal to suit the English and Scotch markets, and it soon became an article of very considerable export; there are now eight oatmeal and flour mills in the city and neighbourhood driven by steam. Up to 1839 there were three large distilleries, but one of them was then discontinued; there are three breweries, one foundry famous for its brass castings and copper works, five tan yards, three soap and two canvass manufactories, and 2 rope-walks. In 1774 there was a sugar baking establishment, which continued working until 1809, when it was converted into a glass manufactory, which was also discontinued in a few years. The commerce of this port for some years has gone on steadily increasing. In 1834 the tonnage inwards was only 63,726 tons, and outwards 62,502. In 1854, the tonnage inwards was 223,606, and outwards 184,213 tons: the former having in less than twenty years nearly quadrupled, and the latter trebled their amounts. Its foreign trade consists chiefly of its imports; its exports are confined to the human species, and as an emigration port at one time exceeded Belfast. Its imports are square timber, deals, staves, tallow, hemp, flax, flaxseed, tar, &c., from Archangel, the Baltic, and British America; barilla, oil, and cane reeds from Spain; sugar and rum from the West Indies; tobacco, ashes, staves, and flaxseed from the United States; bark, flax, and flaxseed from Holland: of the latter article it imported in 1835 from all parts, 12,400 hogsheads; since the famine it has also imported wheat and Indian corn from the Levant and the Black Sea. Its trade with Great Britain is very considerable: for the year ending 5th January, 1835, it exported thence 9,642 boxes and bales of linen cloth, 29,940 barrels of wheat, 14,900 barrels of barley, 119,000 barrels of oats, 69,000 loads of oatmeal, 3,654 tons of flax and tow, 52,842 firkins of butter, 11,580 barrels of pork, 1900 bales of bacon, 590 hogsheads of hams, 147 hogsheads of lard, and 3,050 tons of eggs, hides, skins, &c. Its imports consisted of the usual commodities: tea, sugar, coffee, coals, iron, tin, slates, bark, hardware, earthenware, printed cottons, woollens, herrings, &c. The railway commissioners' returns for 1835 estimate the amount of the exports at £1,040,918, and the imports at £708,054. The trade of the port since 1840 will be best shown by the following Tables:—

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of this Port, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending with the five preceding years.

These Tables show that during the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered this port from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 165,612 tons, of which 38,856 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 1,200,491 tons: total Inwards 1,586,103 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 182,570 tons was cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 36,311 tons were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastways 840,587 tons: total Outwards 986,457 tons. There were registered in this port 365 vessels of 83,209 tons, and the Customs duties collected therein was £1,990,342. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade Inwards of 57,562 tons, of which 20,680 were Foreign shipping, and on that with Great Britain and Coastways 208,729 tons: total increase Inwards 266,111 tons. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 30,890 tons, of which 21,217 tons were Foreign shipping; and on the British and Coastling trade 143,231 tons. There appears to be an increase of 20 vessels of 9,491 tons on the registered shipping, which is owing to the same vessels being registered annually, but the actual increase of 1850 compared with 1840 was 3 vessels and 109 tons, and on the Customs' duties on the five years an increase of £31,214.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows:—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tons.	Customs' duties collected. £
	Foreign Trade. British Tons.	Foreign Trade. Foreign Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Trade. Tons.	Foreign Trade. British Tons.	Foreign Trade. Foreign Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Trade. Tons.		
1851..	15,128	7,349	144,499	10,821	8,043	113,400	7,403	108,194
1852..	23,393	26,445	150,392	13,648	12,178	124,302	7,878	110,535
1853..	23,033	15,055	183,462	14,565	8,605	156,626	7,010	116,799
1854..	13,299	22,492	187,815	9,924	12,276	162,013	5,891	123,224

The trade, therefore, of this port for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 36,341 tons Foreign, and in the British and Coasting trade 257,899 tons. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 75,664 tons, and the British and Coasting 274,694 tons: being an increase on the Foreign trade of 39,323 tons, and on the British and Coasting 16,795 tons. In 1853 the Foreign tonnage was 59,258 tons: being a decrease on the previous year of 16,406 tons; but the British and Coasting trade was 340,088 tons, having increased 65,394 tons. In 1854 the Foreign trade was 57,991 tons, and the British and Coasting 349,828 tons, being a decrease on the former of 1,267 tons, and an increase of 9,740 tons on the latter. The tonnage of the registered shipping of the port in 1851 was thirty-eight vessels of 7,403 tons, which diminished in 1854 to thirty-one vessels of 5,891 tons: decrease seven vessels and 1,512 tons; and the Customs' revenue of 1854, as compared with 1851, shows an increase of £15,030. The decrease in the registered shipping of such a port as Londonderry, extending as it has done in every branch of commerce, is most unaccountable. Small as that amount of shipping comparatively is, there are seven steamers included in it, whose united tonnage is 1,464 tons, and including their engine rooms 2,680 tons. Two of these belong to the Glasgow and Londonderry, and two to the North-West of Ireland Steam Packet Companies, one of the latter iron built; and three to Mr. W. Coppin, two of which are also iron built. These steamers are employed in the Liverpool, Fleetwood, Glasgow, Greenock, and Belfast trade. The Glasgow and Londonderry Company have two other iron steamers, the *Rose* and *Thistle*,

which are registered in the former port. The *Rose* is at present employed between Belfast and Morecambe, and the *Thistle* between Glasgow and this port. Previous to the construction of a patent slip in 1830, which cost £4,000, vessels were sent for repairs to Liverpool or the Clyde: several fine vessels have been since built here, and vessels of 500 tons burthen repaired. In the ship-yard, on the strand, there have been two steamers recently built, one for Liverpool, and the other for foreign trade, besides some first-class East Indiamen.

Harbour and City Improvements.—The number of local Acts of Parliament obtained by the citizens of Londonderry towards improving their city and harbour is very considerable, and must have cost no trifling sum. They commenced with two acts, 30 and 40 Geo. III., relative to building the bridge; 48 Geo. III., c. 136, for supplying the city with pure water, for registering pilots, and extending the jurisdiction of the court for the recovery of small debts: under this act water was conveyed by pipes constructed along the bridge from a reservoir at Braehead, at an expense of £15,500; 54 Geo. III., c. 231, for repairing the bridge, and to enable the corporation to borrow money for that purpose, £15,000 of which was obtained out of the consolidated fund; 5 Geo. IV., c. 122, for watching, lighting, and paving the city; 6 Geo. IV., c. 180, which repealed portions of the original acts, and of that passed the previous year, in reference to appointing the gas light committee; 2 and 3 William IV., c. 141, a very important act, empowering the mayor and twelve other resident inhabitants, rated at £20 under this act, to form a police committee to regulate the watching, lighting, &c. And under the same act the ballast office committee was created, to be composed of the mayor and seven other citizens, whose qualification consisted in being the owners of shipping registered in the port to the extent of £250; importers or exporters of goods to the amount of £2,000, or who paid £200 freight, or occupied premises rated at £30 a-year. The electors to be inhabitants of six months' residency, who were owners of vessels to the amount of £100, or who imported or exported goods to the value of £500, paid £50 freight during the year, or occupied

premises rated at £10 or upwards; the commissioners to be elected by ballot, two of the senior commissioners to vacate annually. This act also regulates the payment of the £15,000 Irish currency, obtained from government for the repairs of the bridge, and which was fixed at £16,338 9s. 6d. English currency, one instalment of which had been paid 1st January, 1852, and similar sums were agreed to be paid until the whole was liquidated. The ballast office committee under this act has the power of improving, preserving, and regulating all matters connected with the Lough and river—port and harbour of Londonderry. The revenues of the port consist of tonnage dues, pilotage, and a charge for ballast to vessels requiring it. All foreign vessels are subject to 6d. a ton on their registered tonnage. For pilotage they pay £1 1s. if they draw only seven feet of water, which, on a graduated scale, runs up to 6s. a foot should they draw sixteen feet: outwards it is only 5s. British or Irish vessels in the cross channel or coasting trade pay 2d. per ton on their registered tonnage, and 14s. pilotage if they draw only seven feet, and 4s. 8d. inwards and 3s. 9d. outwards a foot if it runs up to sixteen feet. For gravel ballast they pay 1s. 3d., and for sand 1s. per ton. Vessels under forty tons pay less pilotage, and those not exceeding twenty tons pay no tonnage dues; vessels bark laden pay extra. There are harbour, pilot, and ballast masters, and twenty-nine pilots under the commissioners. The revenue of the port in 1845 amounted to £1,990, but it must be now, with its great increase of trade, considerably more than £3,000. The ballast commissioners derive no income from wharfage. The corporation up to 1831 exercised the exclusive right to quayage: it then sold its interest in the custom house and merchant quays, and the monopoly being destroyed, a great number of private quays were constructed, but the charges are moderate, and on most articles even less than those of Belfast. Connected with the municipal arrangements and improvements of the city, another act was passed, the 11th and 12th Vic. c. 141. In all these acts the rights of the Irish Society are well protected. It claims jurisdiction, and appoints a vice-admiral in the Lough and adjacent coast. The power, however, is virtually exercised by the ballast commissioners, who have materially improved the harbour since they came into

office. The river Foyle properly commences at Culmore fort, three miles from the city, in which there is at low water, from nine to twelve feet throughout, and vessels drawing eighteen and nineteen feet have been brought up to the quays. There is no impediment, except a narrow ridge at Ross Bay scarcely perceptible, which could be easily removed by the operations of the dredging machine belonging to the harbour; vessels of light burden have sufficient water to St. John's town, seven miles up the river, and there is a canal which continues the navigation to Strabane, fourteen miles from the city.

The Foyle Salmon Fishery.—The Society claims the exclusive right of fishing in the Foyle as far as Lifford, a distance of about thirteen miles up the river; but the Marquis of Abercorn and the Earl of Erne have fisheries on it below that town. This fishery is not so productive as the Bann: it averages about 130 tons annually, the salmon is principally shipped to London, Liverpool, and Glasgow. There are 120 men employed in taking the fish, and as many more to watch their preservation. The fishing off this coast, which James I. described to the London corporation when pointing out the advantages it would derive from the Ulster plantation, as having then employed 140 to 160 sail of Irish, and a number of Dutch vessels in taking herrings at the close of the season, appears to be altogether neglected. In 1835 the Derry merchants cured 5,800 barrels of herrings in the Orkneys: the quantity imported annually averages about 12,000 barrels, one-half of which are cured by vessels fitted out from this port. Without sending their vessels so far, the probability is, if they fished their own coast as far as the Rosses, they would be able to cure their whole consumption at a less expense than they can import them from the Orkneys.

THE PUBLIC BUILDINGS are—*The Town or Corporation Hall*, situated in the centre of the Diamond, was built by the corporation on the site of the original town-house erected by the Society in 1622, and rebuilt in 1825. It was also called the market-house, and previous to 1825 the lower part was used for the sale of meal, &c. It was then established as a news room by

the corporation: in the upper part there is a room for the common council, and an assembly room. *The Public Library and News Room* is a plain building, formed of Dungiven stone, established in 1819 by proprietors of transferable shares of £21 each, and is provided with upwards of 3,000 volumes of select works. *The County Court House*.—A handsome building, also composed of white Dungiven stone, 126 feet long by 66 feet in width. It exhibits a façade judiciously broken by a tetrastyle portico, with enriched Ionic columns of Portland stone modelled from the temple of Erecteus in Athens. It was built from a design of Mr. John Bowden, and cost £30,479 15s. *The County Gaol* was commenced 1819 and finished in 1824, at a cost of £33,718, under contract by Messrs. Henry Mullins and MacMahon. It is partly cemented, and partly built of Dungiven stone, and is 240 feet in front, the total depth of the building, including the yards, being 400 feet. It contains a house for the governor, in which is the chapel; 179 cells, twenty-six work and day rooms, several yards, and an hospital. The silent system was introduced some years back, and there is one good resulting from it here, all the prisoners are employed at some trade or occupation, and receive one-third of their earnings on being discharged. *The County and City Infirmary*. *The Custom House*.—A small and inconvenient building, first taken by the government as a bonding store, but since 1824 it has been occupied as a custom house; the premises comprise some extensive stores and timber yards, 450 feet in front but varying in depth: the government has a permanent tenure of it, for which it pays £1,419 4s. 6d. per annum—a nice income for somebody. *The Lunatic Asylum* for Londonderry and Donegall cost in the erection £25,678: it accommodates 234 patients, whose maintenance, in 1851, cost £3,752. *The Bishop's Palace*, built on the site of an Augustinean Monastery: it was rebuilt by the Earl of Bristol, but was occupied as a barrack in 1802. It has been subsequently repaired; the gardens are well laid out, containing two acres. *The Barracks*.—Although the city is head quarters for a regiment of infantry, they have only accommodation for 320 men and four officers, and an hospital for thirty-two patients. There is, however, more extensive quarters at Glendermot, in the neighbourhood. *The Union Workhouse* was built in

1840 to accommodate 1,100 inmates. It contains an area of 139,360 acres in the counties of Londonderry and Donegall, and a population of 62,241, in twenty-two electoral divisions, represented by twenty-nine elected and twenty-four *ex officio* guardians, who meet on Saturdays. The property subject to the poor rate is valued at £113,096; the expenditure in 1852 was £3,683 9s. 5d., and the rate in aid levied in 1851 and 1852 was £938 2s. 10d.

The Houses of Religious Worship are—The Cathedral of the See of Derry, and two other Protestant Churches, six Presbyterian, and two Catholic Churches, the Convent of the Sisters of Mercy, one Independent, and two Methodist Meeting Houses. The Cathedral, which Lewis says was built in 1633 by the Irish Society, at a cost of £4,000; and Carlisle, by Bishop Barnard, who did not live for a century after, was erected by Bramhall, who was then Bishop of Derry, and in receipt of the rents of the London property, which had been sequestered to the King's use in 1632. It is 240 feet in length, by 66 in breadth, and the spire is 288 feet high. It is seated on the summit of the hill on which Londonderry is built, and being surrounded by battlemented walls, it has the appearance on the approach to the city of a strong fortification. In 1788 the Earl of Bristol had a steeple erected on the old tower, but the latter becoming so dilapidated in 1802, it was obliged to be taken down, and the present spire erected at an expense of £2,600, of which the Society contributed £200, and a further sum for the embellishment of the Cathedral. In the west end of the town is a Chapel of Ease, erected by Bishop Barnard, and a Free Church on the north side, by Bishop Knox, in 1830, which cost £760. The principal Catholic Church or Cathedral of St. Columb, it being in the benefice of the catholic bishop of Derry, is built outside the walls, on the site of the ancient *Teamplemore*, erected in 1164, adjoining the original Abbey founded by St. Columbkille, which was subsequently called the Black Church. The present edifice was erected in 1786, and, including some additions in 1811, cost £27,000, which was raised by subscription. Towards the original building, the protestant bishop, the Earl of Bristol, contributed £200, and the Corporation £50. The most considerable of the Presbyterian Houses is

in Meeting-house Row, it is a handsome structure, the front composed of Dungiven freestone; it was built in 1750, and, with repairs in 1828, cost £4,700. The Covenanters have a house which cost £450 in 1810; and the other Presbyterian Places of Worship are in connexion with the seceding synod, one of which in 1783 cost £450. One of the Wesleyan Chapels was originally a store, and was used by John Wesley himself in 1763 for religious purposes; and another was built in 1783, which cost £1,100; and the Independents erected a Chapel in 1824, which cost them £500.

Educational Institutions.—The National Schools, connected with which is St Columb's School, established in 1825, which cost £1,000 in the erection. The National Board of Education grants it £30, and the Irish Society £10 per annum; the remaining expense is made up of collections and subscriptions, which are applied to the education of upwards of 300 boys and girls. In 1852 there were in the county 177 National Schools, attended by 12,962 pupils. The Diocesan School, which cost £13,714, is a grammar school, to the support of which, the Irish Society and Diocesan Protestant Clergy subscribe £200 a year. It has accommodation for eighty pupils, twenty of which were to be educated gratis, but in 1852 it had only sixty-eight scholars, and ten only on the free list. The Gwyn Charitable Institution, established in 1833 by Mr. John Gwyn, a merchant of this city, who bequeathed £41,757, producing annually £1,882, which is appropriated to the maintenance, clothing, and educating orphan boys of the city, who are taken in between the ages of eight and twelve years, and afterwards apprenticed: there were recently upwards of eighty boys in this Institution. In connexion with the Presbyterian Meeting House, there is a school established in 1820, in which there are upwards of 200 boys and girls educated, who pay one penny weekly, and contributions from the corporation of £10, and the Society £20 per annum. The Bishop's School on Erasmus Smith's plan; a boarding and day School at the convent of the Sisters of Mercy, in Pump Street, where poor female children are educated. There is a benefit School attended by sixty or seventy pupils. At Templemoyle there is an

Agricultural Institution, established in 1827, for giving practical instruction to farmers' sons; there is a model farm of 170 acres, cultivated on the most recent improvements discovered in agriculture: Sir Robert Ferguson, M.P. for Derry, is chairman, who resides here.

The amount of postage, excise, and stamps, collected in Londonderry for the three years ending 5th January, 1853, was—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Postage	£2,616	£2,811	£3,102
Excise	51,821	57,445	72,685
Stamps	7,023	7,570	8,618

Previous to the penny postage being established, the receipts for the year 1834 amounted to £4,047 17s. 8½d. The number of persons employed in collecting the customs' revenue of this port in 1849, was fifty, whose united salaries amounted to £2,601 7s. 2d. The Bank of Ireland, the Provincial Bank of Ireland, the Northern, the Belfast, and Ulster Banking Companies, have branches of their establishments here. There are three newspapers published weekly: the Londonderry Journal, on Wednesdays; the Standard, on Thursdays; and the Sentinel, on Fridays. George Farquhar, the celebrated dramatic writer, was born here in 1678.

Leaving Londonderry and proceeding down the Foyle, the Lough is entered below Culmore Fort, and passing Quigley point on the west, and the River Roe on the east, which falls into the Lough, its entrance from the Atlantic is attained, which is seven miles in width, and is formed by Magilligan point on the east, and Innishown or Ennishowen head on the west; on the latter is a lighthouse at Donagree point, the lantern of which is sixty-seven feet above high water, and exhibits a white fixed light seen thirteen miles to sea, and serves to guide vessels past the Great Tun bank, lying near the entrance to the Lough. Proceeding along the Donegall coast, Innistrahul Island is made, in 55° 26' north, 7° 14' west, on which there has been a lighthouse since 1812; the lantern is 167 feet above the level of the sea, and exhibits a first-class revolving light, seen at a distance of eighteen miles. Passing Dunaff Head, Lough Swilly, a splendid arm of the sea, with deep water and safe

anchorage, is entered. From 1724 to 1766, various attempts were made to constitute Rathmullin, on the west shore of this Lough, a port which was successfully opposed by the Irish Society: Rathmeltoun, however, is now a place of more importance; it is situated on the river Lennan, which discharges itself into the Lough, and in which pearls of exquisite beauty have been found: it has great capabilities for commerce and manufactures. At the extremity of the Lough, is Letterkenny, situated on the river Swilly, which is navigable for vessels drawing ten feet of water. It is an improving little town, although the population has decreased since 1841. There is an extensive slate quarry in the neighbourhood. On leaving the Lough on the west, near the entrance is Fannat point, on which there is a lighthouse erected in 1816, the lantern ninety feet above high water, and exhibits a fixed white light seen fourteen miles to sea. Malin Head, the most northerly point on the Donegall coast, with Mulroy Bay, Sheepshaven, and Horn Head are passed in succession; and Tory Island, in $55^{\circ} 16' N.$ $8^{\circ} 15' W.$, on the N.W. of which there is a lighthouse, the lantern 125 feet above the level of the sea, and exhibiting a fixed light, seen at a distance of sixteen miles. On this island there are some interesting remains of antiquity. The Foreland, and Arranranmore, the largest of a group of islands called the Rosses, are now passed. Some years ago a most profitable and extensive herring fishery was carried on here, which employed 400 sail of fishing vessels, and 1,000 small boats. Passing several small islands and bays on the coast, the island of Rathlin O'Birne is made, on which a lighthouse is now erecting; this island lies well into the Atlantic, near the entrance to Donegall Bay, on the north side of which is Killybegs, formerly one of the principal Irish seaports, and still deserving of being such from its fine and safe harbour, and eligible situation for commerce and manufactures. The harbour is nearly circuitous, well sheltered, and accessible to ships of any burden. Vessels not drawing more than ten feet may anchor near the town, but on the west side, where there is good anchorage, they may safely ride in fifty feet of water. There is a lighthouse on Rotten Island, showing a fixed white light, and another on St. John's Island, on the S.E. of Mac Sweney's Bay.

which lies, as well as Inver Bay, between Killybegs and Donegall; the latter town is situated at the N.E. extremity of Donegall Bay, on the river Esk. The harbour is formed by a pool on the east side of Doorin Peninsula, where, at a distance of two miles below the town, vessels may ride in sixteen feet of water, quite near the shore. It was to this port that Perrott sent a ship, purporting to be from Spain, with choice wines, on board of which Red Hugh O'Donnell, Prince of Tyrconnell, was treacherously entrapped. A Franciscan monastery was founded here in 1474, where the annals of the four masters were compiled. There is good fishing in this bay, herrings visiting it in the summer and autumn in great abundance. Manganese has been found in the Esk Demesne, and splendid pearls in the river. On the S.E. side of the bay, on the river Erne, stands the town of Ballyshannon, formerly called *Athseanaigh*, and was the principal seat of the O'Donnells, and where Hugh O'Donnell received his son Red Hugh, after his escape from Dublin Castle. The Erne, in its course to the Bay, is crossed by a bridge of fourteen arches, which divides the town; that on the south side is called the Purt, which is the harbour. The salmon fishing here is the most extensive in Ireland, with the exception of Coleraine and Ballina; the principal part of the fish is shipped to England. There is an old established distillery here, in which there are 100,000 gallons of whiskey distilled annually. It has some import and export trade with Great Britain, and both it and Donegall are branch ports of Sligo. The harbour was formerly obstructed by a bar, which has been removed, and other improvements made by the late Colonel Connolly at his sole expense, and vessels drawing twelve feet of water can now come up to the town. Copper, lead, and zinc have been discovered in the neighbourhood, and it is admirably circumstanced for manufactures, there being on the river a succession of falls of 140 feet from the grand cascade, about four miles from the town, where the navigation is abruptly stopped by the immense column of water from Lough Erne, descending perpendicularly about twenty feet, which is called the Falls. This, although a splendid object to view, is a serious injury to the trade of Ballyshannon, and it has been long in contemplation to construct a railway between that town and Belleek, near the

entrance to Lough Erne, which is navigable to Enniskillen and Belturbet. From Ballyshannon to Dundalk is the narrowest part of Ireland, being only sixty-seven miles from the Atlantic to the Irish sea, and Lough Erne occupies, in a direct line to Belturbet at its eastern extremity, half the distance. Ballyshannon is the last town on the Donegall coast, a coast well known to the ancients, and the N.W. boundary of that extensive territory over which the O'Donnells ruled for centuries. Niall, of the nine hostages, granted to his son Conall Golban the county of Donegall, formerly better known as Tyrconall, and his descendants as the Kinel Conall, the whole of which James I. deprived them of in 1607. Proceeding from Donegall Bay, and entering the Atlantic, Innismurray Island is passed: vessels should steer outside of this island, as there are dangerous reefs of rocks between it and the main land: it is the property of Lord Palmerston, and contains about 100 inhabitants, who exist by fishing. The entrance to Sligo Bay is formed of Augris head and Rinoran point, and is about five miles at the entrance, and the same distance to the harbour, the upper part of which is divided into three inlets, but the centre only leads to the town. On the north side is Roughly, a small peninsula; and on its S.W. is the Wheat Rock, nearly half a mile in extent, partly dry during the influence of the tide; and at its south end are the Bird Rocks, from which, about half a mile east, a vessel may safely ride, in moderate weather, in fifteen feet of water. There is a small pier admitting vessels drawing twelve feet of water within this point. About one mile south of Roughly is the Bungarr, or Blackrock reef, extending to the north end of Coney Island, the western part of which is dry at low water. A lighthouse has been erected on it since 1835, and the channel into Sligo lies close along its north side, and becomes shallow from thence to Lissadill. On the bar of Sligo there is only ten feet at low water: vessels drawing twelve feet should take it at half flood, for with westerly winds there is generally a heavy sea between Roughly and the point of Rosse. There are two light-houses on Oyster Island, erected in 1837, which lies opposite Coney Island, and both define the channel well. The harbour of Sligo extends properly from the Old Bridge to the Wheat Rock in Sligo Bay.

SLIGO.

SLIGO is a considerable maritime town and parliamentary borough, in Carbury Barony, and county of Sligo, situated on the river Garogue, 131 miles N.W. of Dublin, in $54^{\circ} 22'$ latitude, $8^{\circ} 22'$ longitude. It contains an area of 3,001 acres: 417 of which are in the town, and 2,584 in the rural district. In 1831 the population of both was 15,152 persons. In 1841 there were in the town 2,083 houses, population 12,272; and in the rural district 266 houses, and 2,046 persons: total 2,349 houses, and 14,318 inhabitants. In 1851 the houses within the town were 1,840, and the population 11,104, being a decrease of 163 houses, and 1,168 inhabitants. The corporation is styled the mayor, free burgesses, and commonalty of the borough of Sligo: it is now, however, composed of a mayor, six aldermen, and eighteen councillors elected annually for the three wards, northern, eastern, and western, of which the borough consists. It formerly returned two members to the Irish, and since the Union, one to the united parliament; its present representative is John Sadlier, Esq., a Dublin solicitor, and for a short time one of the lords of the treasury. Previous to 1832, the member was returned by a provost and twelve burgesses, who assumed the power, or who rather obeyed the dictates of the late Mr. Owen Wynne, of Hazelwood, who virtually represented the corporation in his own person. The only property now belonging to the corporation is about twenty acres of land, formerly a common, let at £98 3s. 4d.; and a plot of ground used as a pound, but now built on, and producing £10 10s. per annum. But the 2nd of William IV., c. 88, extended the franchise to £10 householders, under which in 1834 there were registered 694 electors; in 1849 they increased to 715; in 1851, under the 13th and 14th Vic., c. 69, they decreased to 336, less than one-half the former number; and in 1853 they increased

to 351—of whom there were 2 burgesses of the old corporation, 337 rated occupiers, and twelve of other qualifications. Sligo must have been a place of little or no importance previous to the Anglo-Norman invasion. The first historical account of the town after that event occurred in 1242, when Maurice Fitzgerald, Earl of Kildare, erected a castle, and in 1252 founded a monastery here, which he dedicated to the Holy Cross, for Dominican friars. In 1270 the town and castle was destroyed by O'Donnell, but he spared the monastery. The castle was rebuilt by Richard de Burgh, Earl of Ulster, in 1310. In 1360 the town was destroyed by fire. In 1394 it was burnt down by Mac William Burgh. In 1414 the monastery was also destroyed by fire, and in 1416 it was rebuilt by Bryan Mac Dermot. Mac Dunchaigh, or Mac Donagh, Prince of *Toroilill*, who in 1454 was interred therein. It continued to flourish until its dissolution in the reign of Henry VIII., when it was granted to Sir W. Taaffe. The town was made a parliamentary borough by James I., and in 1621 obtained a charter of the staple. In 1627 Sir James Craig obtained a grant of two markets and two fairs, to be held in the town. In the war of 1641 it was taken without opposition by Sir Charles Coote, and an imposing force of 4,000 foot and 500 horse. But the Catholic Archbishop of Tuam having collected a considerable body of men, and being joined by Sir James Dillon, who was dispatched by the confederates then sitting at Kilkenny, they attacked the town, and were in the act of expelling the parliamentarians, when an alarm spread that a large force was approaching to relieve it. This induced the confederates to abandon the siege, and on their retreat, being attacked by Coote, the archbishop was killed, and on his person was found those important documents which exposed the secret communications that took place between Charles I. and the Irish Catholics. Coote afterwards evacuated the town, which he attempted to regain on his advancing against Limerick, but the catholics held it until the end of the war. Charles II. granted the town a charter, confirming that extended to it by the 11th of James I., which incorporated it under the name of the provost, twelve free burgesses, and the commonalty of the borough of Sligo. The provost was elected annually by the burgesses, and they for life by each other. Charles

constituted the corporation a guild of trade. The provost presided over the borough court, where debts to the extent of £3 6s. 8d. were recoverable, and a court of record to the extent of £100. In 1689 a body of Enniskilliners took possession of Sligo, but were soon after forced to abandon it by Sarsfield, and it was finally reduced by the Earl of Granard. By 39 George II., c. 21, it was enacted that the corporation should be conservators of the port, and should maintain a ballast office for improving and preserving it. The town is watched, lighted, paved, and cleansed under the 43 George III., c. 60, regulated by commissioners composed of the representatives of the county and borough, and twenty-four resident inhabitants of the town, or within five miles of it, to be elected by householders of premises valued at £20. Their duties were to regulate the markets, carriages, porters, &c.; to improve the port and harbour; to construct new docks and quays, and repair the old; to regulate the pilotage; and to assess towards these objects a rate on all houses of the annual value of £5, not to exceed 2s. 6d. in the pound. The commissioners were also empowered to raise a fund of £2,000 for the improvement of the town, and £6,000 for that of the harbour. A more recent act was obtained, 9 Victoria, c. 24, for maintaining and improving the port and harbour, and which repealed that part of the 43 George III. which constituted the county and borough members, harbour and town commissioners, and appointing in their room the town council, constituted under the municipal act 3 and 4 Vic., c. 108. This act gave the commissioners considerable powers, and they extended and improved the quays, particularly the Bank Ballast quay, which is 2,248 feet long, and cost £2,704. The income of the port in 1847 arising from tonnage, ballast, quayage, and pilotage, amounted to £2,800. The quays are very commodious; vessels drawing thirteen feet of water can come up and moor close to them. Those of a larger draught have good and safe anchorage in the pool. The town of Sligo consists of two parishes: St. John's on the south side, which is the most considerable and opulent, and Calry on the north side, which is the smallest portion. They are connected by two bridges over the river Garogue, which has its source in Lough Gill, and is navigable to the town, a distance of about three miles, and then falls into Sligo Bay.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—Formerly Sligo had a considerable trade in the manufacture of linen cloth of the coarser qualities called narrows, but it has almost ceased, and the hall erected for its use is now vacant. There are a few weavers who still persevere, but they are principally employed in weaving stockings. The embroidering and sewing muslin and light cottons employ the female population to some extent. Several mills are engaged in the manufacture of flour and oatmeal. There are also manufactories of soap, candles, tobacco, hats, ropes, &c. Messrs. Martin and Madden have an extensive distillery, long established, which distils annually upwards of 120,000 gallons of whiskey, and there are also three breweries in full operation. The commerce of Sligo has increased considerably within the last half century. In 1800 the number of vessels that entered the port was 65, of 4,100 tons. In 1830 they increased to 540, of 57,015 tons. The customs' duties in 1826 were £33,565, and in 1836 they were £35,864. The returns of the railway commissioners in 1835 estimate the exports for that year at £330,000, and the imports at £115,000, exclusive of its branch ports of Ballyshannon and Donegall, or even Ballina; the trade and customs' revenues of which, for some incomprehensible reason only known to those who furnish the official accounts, are sometimes capriciously included in those of Sligo, and at other times given separately, as they should be, there being a distinct custom house for many years established in that port. The principal exports are grain, butter, linen, and provisions. Previous to the famine of 1847 the exports of oats and oatmeal were very considerable to London and Liverpool, and more particularly to Glasgow. The imports consist of timber, iron, coal, salt, tea, coffee, sugar, tobacco, and British manufactured articles, and for the last few years, wheat, and Indian corn from the Black Sea, the Levant, and Liverpool..

The general trade of the port, including Ballina, agreeable to the official return, No. 171, dated 2nd April, 1851, for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, will be shown by the following Tables:—

SLIGO AND BALLINA.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of these Ports, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping: the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending, with the five preceding years.

Years ending 1st January.	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Shipping.	Customs' Duties collected.										
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					TOTAL INWARDS.					Foreign Trade.							British and Coasting Trade.					TOTAL OUTWARDS.				
	British.		Foreign.			Total.		British.		Foreign.			Total.		British.		Foreign.			Total.			British.		Foreign.			Total.				
	Vess.	Tn.	Vess.	Tn.	Vess.	Tn.	Vess.	Tn.	Vess.	Tn.	Vess.	Tn.	Vess.	Tn.	Vess.	Tn.	Vess.	Tn.	Vess.	Tn.			Vess.	Tn.	Vess.	Tn.	Vess.	Tn.	Vess.	Tn.		
1841.	33	5835	5	734	38	6569	427	35026	465	41595	40	7692	5	734	45	8426	474	37387	519	45813	38	4108	32414									
1842.	36	6021	7	1276	43	7297	363	27960	406	35257	41	7851	7	1276	48	9127	412	30856	460	39983	39	4366	36407									
1843.	22	4326	2	378	24	4704	375	30947	399	35651	35	8093	1	117	36	8210	388	29831	424	38041	37	4363	31811									
1844.	19	3673	1	138	20	3811	345	31406	365	35217	22	4659	2	262	24	4911	472	40344	496	45255	28	3146	29713									
1845.	30	6086	2	241	32	6327	421	37451	453	43778	24	5038	2	241	26	5279	590	49837	616	55116	27	2987	31337									
1846.	140	25941	17	2767	157	28708	1931	162790	2088	191498	162	33333	17	2620	179	35953	2336	188255	2515	224208	169	18960	161682									
1846.	42	7810	10	1124	52	8934	345	35921	397	44855	34	7354	9	997	43	8351	490	48344	533	56695	28	3218	30345									
1847.	64	12236	9	2487	73	14723	406	44779	479	59502	72	18070	4	1108	76	17178	358	34580	434	61768	30	4256	36285									
1848.	89	17446	90	19528	179	36974	548	57260	727	94234	107	25278	43	10962	150	36240	281	30498	431	66738	39	6068	35135									
1849.	43	6911	18	3939	60	10850	381	42214	341	53064	36	9468	13	2867	49	12355	257	31391	306	43726	32	4275	30591									
1850.	61	11823	14	2799	75	14622	422	47653	597	62275	46	10521	5	1098	51	11619	178	30431	229	42050	34	4325	28230									
1846 to '50	299	56226	141	29877	439	86108	2102	227827	2541	313930	295	68691	74	17032	369	85723	1564	175244	1933	260967	161	22142	159586									
1841 to '45	140	25941	17	2767	157	28708	1931	162790	2088	191498	162	33333	17	2620	179	35953	2336	188255	2515	224208	169	18960	161682									
1841 to '46	439	82167	158	32644	596	114811	4033	390617	4629	505428	457	102024	91	19652	548	121676	3900	363499	4448	485175	330	41102	321268									
1841 to '50	159	30285	124	27110	282	57395	171	65037	453	122432	133	35358	57	14412	190	49770	772	13011	582	36759	8	3182	2096									
Incr.																																

These Tables show, that during ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered this port from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 114,811 tons, of which 32,644 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 890,617 tons: total Inwards 565,458 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 121,676 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 19,462 were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastways 363,499 tons: total Outwards 489,175 tons. There were registered in this port 380 vessels of 41,102 tons, and the Customs' duties collected therein was £321,268. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade Inwards of 57,986 tons, of which 27,110 tons were Foreign shipping; and on that with Great Britain and Coastways of 66,087 tons: total increase Inwards 122,493 tons. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 49,770 tons, of which 14,412 tons were Foreign shipping; and on the British and Coasting trade there was a decrease of 18,011 tons; but the increase on the general trade Outwards was 86,769 tons, although there was decrease on the vessels of 582. There appears to be a decrease of 8 vessels, but an increase of 3,182 tons on the registered shipping, which is owing to the vessels being registered annually; but the actual increase of 1850 compared with 1845 was 7 vessels and 1,398 tons, but on the Customs' duties there was a decrease of £2,096.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, excluding Ballina, but including Ballyshannon and Donegall, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows:—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.				OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tnge.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Tnge.	Trade. Foreign Tnge.	Brit. and Coasting Tnge.		Foreign Tnge.	Trade. Foreign Tnge.	Brit. and Coasting Tnge.		
1851..	5,638	2,968	34,563	..	4,649	155	28,953	..	4,789 20,490
1852..	11,800	5,786	38,908	..	5,791	4,734	30,467	..	4,062 21,371
1853..	9,490	4,988	38,243	..	6,354	4,796	36,775	..	4,288 20,576
1854..	6,796	3,622	34,343	..	3,974	3,059	32,829	..	4,251 18,902

The trade of this port for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 13,410 tons Foreign, and 63,516 tons in the British and Coasting trade. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 28,111 tons, and in the British and Coasting trade 69,375 tons: being an increase on the former of 14,701 tons, and on the latter 5,859 tons. In 1853 the Foreign tonnage was 25,628 tons, and the British and Coasting 75,018 tons: being a decrease on the former of 2,483 tons, and an increase of 5,643 tons on the latter. For the year ending 5th January, 1854, the Foreign trade was 17,451 tons, and the British and Coasting 67,172 tons: being a decrease on the former of 8,177 tons, and 7,846 tons on the latter. The registered shipping, which consisted of thirty-five vessels, and 4,789 tons in 1851, decreased in 1854 to thirty-four vessels and 4,251 tons, and the customs' duties also decreased £1,588. In the registered shipping there are two steamers included, the Commerce, 44 tons, owner Mr. W. Middleton, and the Dolphin, 67 tons, belonging to Mr. W. C. Tate: the tonnage of both, including their engine rooms, is 189 tons.

There is a considerable salmon fishery on the river, the property of Mr. Abraham Martin: the number taken in it in 1845 was 2,240, weighing $7\frac{1}{2}$ tons: the preservation of the fish employs thirty-eight water bailiffs. The Sligo coast fishery extends from Ballina bridge to Mullaghmore: in 1851 it employed 475 registered vessels, and 2,724 men and boys, but in 1853 the vessels decreased to 216, and the men and boys to 1,269—a serious falling off in two years. In 1845 there were two acts passed, the 9th Vic., c. 343,

and c. 353: the first authorised the construction of a railway from Sligo to the Shannon, which has been properly abandoned, as it would only unite Sligo with the Atlantic and the western coast, where it is placed already; but a railway that would connect it with the eastern coast is what it requires, to forward expeditiously its light produce, such as butter, linen, spirits, and even meal and flour to England. A short line to join the Dundalk and Enniskillen Railway at the latter place, is one that would be of the greatest benefit to the commercial community of Sligo. Dundalk, on the Irish Sea, and Sligo, on the Atlantic, are the two ports, with the exception of Ballyshannon, between which there is the shortest span; and it is surprising that, even before the introduction of railways, there was not some attempt made to unite these seas. The latter act was to extend the harbour to Lough Gill, and to form a canal, which has not been acted on either.

The Public Buildings are—the County Court House, a well arranged building, but of limited dimensions. The County Gaol, erected at a cost of £30,000. The Infirmary, a handsome building of hewn limestone, containing six wards for thirty patients. The Custom House, attached to which are the bonding warehouses. The public Library, and two News Rooms. The Cavalry and Constabulary Barracks. The County Lunatic Asylum, independent of the accommodation it affords, Sligo has a right to send forty-six patients to the Connaught Provincial Asylum at Ballinasloe. The Union Workhouse, opened in 1841, to accommodate 1,710 inmates: it contains an area of 143,523 acres, and a population of 58,566 persons, in twenty-nine electoral divisions, represented by thirty-four elected and twenty-eight *ex officio* guardians, who meet on Tuesdays; the property rated to the poor for 1852 was valued at £91,026, the expense of maintenance, &c. £6,659, and the rate in aid, levied in 1851, was £1,145 19s. 8½d., of which £874 12s. 6d. was issued in support of this union. There was no rate in aid levied or issued in it for 1852.

The Houses of Religious Worship are—two Protestant, two Catholic, one Presbyterian, one Independent, and two Wesleyan

Methodist. The protestant church of St. John is an old cruciform building, with rather a heavy stone tower at the west end. The other church, in the parish of Calry, is a modern structure, built in 1822, at a cost of £3,500. The Catholic parish church of St. John is an edifice of spacious dimensions. The other house is a Dominican Friary, called the old Abbey Church. There are also two Convents of the Sisters of Mercy and Ursuline Nuns. Some interesting remains of the once splendid monastery of Sligo still remain. They consist of three sides of the cloisters, with a fancy vaulted roof, supported by a series of pillars sculptured and arranged agreeable to the early style of English architecture. The east window and high altar, on the right of which is the tomb of the O'Connor, bear evident traces of their original rich designs. The central tower is complete, with the exception of the battlements, which have long since toppled down.

The Educational Institutions are—the National Schools for boys and girls. The St. John's Parochial School, supported by the proceeds of charity sermons. A School supported out of Erasmus Smith's charitable bequest. The St. John's Female School, in which there is also a Sunday School, both supported by subscription; and there is another Female School in the parish of Calry. In 1852 there were in the county ninety-three National Schools, attended by 11,211 children.

The Bank of Ireland, and the Provincial Bank of Ireland, have branches here. The Savings Bank, established in 1820, had 520 depositors in 1852, whose lodgments amounted to £13,390, at £2 18s. 6d. per annum.

The amount of postage, excise, and stamps collected in Sligo, for the three years ending 5th January, 1853, was—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Postage	£1,214	£1,232	£1,260
Excise	19,893	20,996	24,047
Stamps for the District	1,543	1,636	1,838

The number of persons employed in collecting the customs' revenue of this port in 1849, was forty-eight, whose united salaries

amounted to £2,020 13s. 8d., a large sum compared with the amount of its customs' revenue.

In the neighbourhood of Sligo there is some splendid scenery, particularly Hazelwood demesne, on Lough Gill, the residence of the Right Honourable John Wynne. It is situated on a peninsula, which stretches into the Lough, and commands some beautiful views over its waters, and of the richly wooded islands it contains. The regattas on it, for which it is well adapted, are very attractive and numerous attended.

Proceeding from Sligo Bay, Kennisharrack Point on the north, and Kilcummin head on the south, forms the entrance to Killala Bay, where General Humbert, with two frigates of forty-four, and one of thirty-eight guns, and a small force of seventy officers and 1,030 men, dispatched from Rochelle, and destined for the coast of Donegal, arrived in the autumn of 1798. Humbert immediately took possession of the town, and the Irish peasantry, to an inconsiderable amount, joined this force, clearly showing that Connaught, where there were few or no united Irishmen, was not its intended destination, it being designed for Ulster, where the strength of the Society chiefly lay. It had only a single piece of ordnance, and was deficient in small arms to accommodate a numerous body of insurgents. Humbert, however, showed himself an able tactician, and with so small a force, resolute in the extreme. The Bishop's Palace was formerly situated here, and Humbert's officers took up their quarters in it during their short occupation of the town. Killala is situated at the extremity of the bay, on the west bank of the river Moy. It contains about 200 houses, and had some trade in the export of grain, &c., from 1800 to 1835, but the rising importance of Ballina about that period almost entirely deprived it of its trifling commerce. The harbour affords good anchorage in about ten feet of water, but vessels drawing twelve feet can come up during the influence of the tide. There is good fishing here, and about 300 persons are employed in the pursuit annually. Six miles higher up the river, delightfully situated, stands the town of Ballina.

BALLINA.

BALLINA, anciently called *Belleek*, is a maritime port and market town in the barony of Tyrawley, county Mayo, $54^{\circ} 6' N.$, $8^{\circ} 59' W.$, is 125 miles N.N.W. of Dublin. It comprises an area of 164 acres, and in 1831 contained 1,200 houses, and 5,510 inhabitants; in 1841 the houses increased to 1,364, and the population to 7,012 persons; in 1851 the houses were 1,116, and the inhabitants 5,230; but there were 1,339 inmates in the workhouse, and including them there would be still a decrease on 1841 of 247 houses and 443 persons. Ballina is indebted to one of the Lord Tyrawleys for its origin, who more than a century ago commenced building the town, which consisted for a considerable time of only one street, but has now several, composed of well-built houses. On the 23rd August, 1798, General Humbert, who had the previous day taken Killala, sent forward an advance guard towards Ballina, and the Rev. J. Fortescue, nephew to Lord Clermont, having volunteered his services to accompany a military force sent out to meet them, was shot on the occasion. Humbert having left a few of his officers and a body of Irish insurgents in possession of Killala, marched on Ballina, which he took without firing a shot: Colonel Sir T. Chapman and the carbineers retiring with great precipitation to Foxford, eight miles distant, pursued by Humbert, who marched on Castlebar. At this point General Hutchinson had arrived from Galway and was joined by General Lake, who had succeeded Carhampton as Commander-in-Chief, and, if possible, surpassed him in the tortures and cruelties he inflicted on the unarmed people. Their united forces amounted to 6,000 men, and fourteen pieces of cannon advantageously posted, while Humbert had only 900 French, and about 1,000 raw and undisciplined Irish, and one curricule gun. On the very first onset, however, the

British army gave way on all sides and fled in the utmost disorder through the town of Castlebar, the carbineers trampling down the infantry in their retreat, in which Lake, so valiant against unarmed foes, *resolutely* joined, demonstrating that cruelty and cowardice are closely allied. The flight was continued to Tuam, which they reached the same day, it being thirty-eight miles from the scene of action, and which was continued to Athlone, where some of the fugitives arrived after retreating eighty miles in twenty-seven hours. In this disgraceful engagement, which was more properly called the races of Castlebar, the British army lost fifty-three men killed, thirty-four wounded, and 279 missing. Lord Cornwallis had now collected an army of 30,000 men, and had reached Kilbeggan on his march to Castlebar; Humbert, however, abandoned that town on the 4th September, and marched towards Sligo, with the intention of entering Donegall, where he expected reinforcements from France. On his way he was met by Colonel Vereker, with the Limerick militia, and two currie guns, which, after a smart skirmish, fell into the hands of the French, the Colonel retreating on Sligo. Humbert, understanding that Longford and Westmeath were in open insurrection, changed his intention of proceeding to Donegall, and marched into Leitrim, and from thence to Ballinamuck in the county Longford, where he arrived on the 8th September, but found himself hemmed in by the whole British army under Lord Cornwallis, and after an ineffectual contest, which lasted for some hours, during which Lord Roden was a prisoner in his hands, he and the French force, now amounting to about 800 men, surrendered as prisoners of war, leaving his Irish auxiliaries, who were excluded from quarter, to be cut down by the British army, which was done without mercy. This small division under Humbert was only the vanguard of a more considerable force which had been promised for the invasion of Ireland by the French Directory to the indefatigable and talented but unfortunate Theobald Wolfe Tone. The delay, however, that occurred in dispatching this second armament, and at such distant intervals, proved as fatal to it as the storms and other casualties had been to the first. On the 16th September an armed brig arrived at Rutland Island, on the coast of Donegall,

with a small reinforcement under James Napier Tandy, now invested with the rank of General of Brigade in the French service, but hearing of Humbert's defeat it did not land, but returned to France. It was not until the 11th October that the principal armament, consisting of the *Hoche*, of the line, and eight frigates, with 4,000 men on board, made their appearance off Lough Swilly, closely pursued by Sir J. B. Warren with a superior British squadron. The French Admiral, whose object was to land the troops, reluctantly came to an engagement; in which, however, the French displayed the greatest valour, but were defeated with the loss of the *Hoche*—the frigates, attempting to escape, six of them were taken in the pursuit—three other frigates of this expedition, with 2,000 men on board, subsequently arrived in Killala Bay, but hearing of the fate of the fleet, and of the division that had landed, they returned home. On board the *Hoche* was the man by whose personal and untiring exertions, and at whose instance these armaments were equipped, in furtherance of the views he had so long and so fondly indulged in, and which he hoped to have made instrumental in accomplishing the independence of his native land. Tone, now a prisoner, was dispatched to Dublin, where he was tried by court martial, and made a manly and eloquent defence, neither denying, extenuating, nor excusing himself from the charges brought against him, but contending that as a denizen of France, the country of his adoption, and in whose service he was then as an officer engaged, he no longer owed allegiance to the British Crown, and should be treated as a prisoner of war. These arguments had no weight, and he was sentenced to be executed. He solicited strenuously to be shot as a soldier, which was even denied him, and he committed suicide in prison; thus relieving the government from the embarrassment in which his French naturalization would have otherwise placed it. With his death the cause of Ireland was again doomed for a season to slumber in oblivion. The town of Ballina, which Humbert had left in charge of the Irish from the neighbouring districts after his surrender, was retaken by Colonel French, as well as Killala; and the Irish, who in both places fought resolutely, were defeated, and put to the sword without mercy. Ballina is situated on the west bank of the river Moy, on which there is a

considerable salmon fishery, which let as far back as 1776 for £570; the Messrs. Little's some years ago laid out £1,500 on it, and for several succeeding years it was let for a similar sum per annum. The salmon is sent to the Dublin and Liverpool markets for sale. This fishery, so profitable to the owners, is injurious to the navigation of the river, which would have been otherwise improved under an Act passed in 1838 for that purpose. The inhabitants of Ballina have been active and liberal in their exertions to improve the trade and commerce of the town, by constructing new roads, bridges, &c.: one of these, which connects the quay of Ardnaree with Ballina, cost £1,500, the half of which was paid by them; and another, communicating with the quay of Belleek, which cost £700, was principally raised by subscription in the town. A bridge constructed over the river at the lower part of the town cost £1,200, which was called Arran bridge, from the circumstance of the Earl of Arran contributing £100 towards it. A ship canal was formerly commenced by Mr. Nimmo, to admit vessels of heavy burden to the town, instead of discharging their cargoes at Ardnaree and Belleek, but it was discontinued after expending £1,000 on it, and the works have since fallen to decay. By means of the bridge over the Moy, Ardnaree and Ballina are connected, and may be considered as one town.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—As early as 1729 the cotton trade was introduced here by Lord Tyrawley, who erected a factory in the town, which occupied a considerable portion of the population in the weaving of muslin, &c. There were also some coarse linens manufactured here. In 1801 an extensive tobacco and snuff manufactory was established by Mr. Malley, which continued to increase until 1809, when it principally contributed to swell the customs' revenue of the port in that year to £8,000. In 1834 Mr. J. Brennan, a Belfast merchant, introduced the provision trade, and erected premises for the purpose, in which 10,000 pigs were annually cured, and other merchants followed his example, so that Ballina for some years was a considerable provision port. There are two large ale and porter breweries, two extensive meal and flour mills, and soap and candle manufactories in the town. Its foreign imports consists of a few cargoes of timber

and deals from British North America and the Baltic; and latterly, of foreign wheat and Indian corn from the Black Sea. Its imports from Great Britain are tea, coffee, sugar, tobacco, coal, iron, salt, and British manufactured articles; and latterly, Indian corn from Liverpool. It has no foreign export trade, and that to Great Britain consists of bacon, pork, butter, salmon, flour, meal, wheat, barley, and oats. In 1829 it exported 10,831 tons of oats, 130 tons of wheat, 106 tons of barley, and 30 tons of oatmeal. The railway commissioners in 1835 return the amount of its imports for that year at £16,500, and its exports at £89,000. The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows:—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping	Customs' Duties collected.
	Foreign Tons.	Trade. Foreign Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Tons.	Foreign Tons.	Trade. Foreign Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Tons.		
1851 ..	576	438	2,845 ..	371	131	1,423 ..	81	4,999
1852 ..	1,834	1,284	4,689 ..	271	836	3,647 ..	17	5,680
1853 ..	2,113	296	3,466	296	4,613 ..	17	4,980
1854 ..	1,017	1,044	3,057 ..	535	797	4,424 ..	251	4,805

The Foreign trade therefore of this port for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 1,516 tons, and the British and Coasting 4,268 tons. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 4,225 tons, and the British and Coasting 8,336 tons: being an increase on the former of 2,709 tons, and on the latter of 4,068 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 2,705 tons, and the British and Coasting 8,079 tons, being a decrease on the former of 1,520 tons, and on the latter of 257 tons. In 1854 the Foreign tonnage was 3,393 tons, and the British and Coasting 7,481 tons; being an increase on the former of 688 tons, and a decrease on the latter of 598 tons; but an increase on the general trade of the port of 90 tons. The registered shipping, which consisted of two vessels of eighty-one tons in 1851, had increased to three vessels of 251 tons in 1854; and the Customs' duties, although they increased in 1852, decreased £194 in 1854. The number of persons employed in collecting the Customs of this port in 1849, was six, whose united salaries amounted to £404 3s. 6d. The Court House is a handsome building, the

erection of which cost £1,000, and where there are quarter sessions held in July. There are Houses of Religious Worship for the Baptist and Wesleyan Methodists in the town, and the Protestant as well as the Catholic Churches are at Ardnaree; the latter is the Cathedral Church of the diocese of Killala, and is a spacious, elegant structure, ornamented with minarets; it was built by subscription, and cost £9,000. The Catholic Bishop also resides there; the parish of Kilmoremay, in which Ballina is situated, being one of his benefices. There is a convent also of the Sisters of Mercy established here. On the east side of the river are the ruins of the extensive Monastery founded by St. Olean, a disciple of St. Patrick: a spacious doorway of beautiful design is yet discernible. The National School is well attended; and in 1852 the number of schools in the county Mayo, deriving support from the Commissioners of National Education, was 173, and the children instructed 18,698. The Union Workhouse was opened in 1842 to accommodate 1,400 inmates, and there are two auxiliary Workhouses capable of containing 2,000 more. The Union comprises an area of 150,415 acres, partly in Mayo and partly in Sligo; and a population in 1851 of 35,226 persons, in twenty electoral divisions, represented by twenty-one elected, and twenty-one *ex officio* guardians, who meet on Saturdays. The property rated to the poor in 1852 was valued at £33,787, the expenditure for the year £5,700; the rate in aid levied 1851 and 1852, was £281 4s. 9d., and the amount issued to relieve this Union £530. The Provincial Bank of Ireland has a branch of its establishment here. There are two Newspapers published in Ballina: the Connaught Watchman on Wednesdays, and the Tyrawley Herald on Thursdays.

From Killala Bay there is no port or harbour of any importance along the north coast of Mayo until the Stags of Broadhaven and Bimvy head are made at the N. W. extremity of the land, which now takes a westerly direction, and stretches broadly into the Atlantic. Broadhaven, a fine harbour, is then entered between Kid Island and Errishead: it is seven miles in breadth, and four to five in depth, and has good anchorage at its entrance in upwards of four fathoms water. It branches into two channels, which are

not adapted for the reception of large vessels, one of these to the S. E., after passing Inver, runs to the extremity, which is opposite the town of Belmullet, situated on Blacksod Bay. That portion of the isthmus called the Mullet, which separated these bays, was only about 200 yards, and it has been insulated by a ship canal cut through it by the Board of Works, which unites the two bays. Vessels drawing 10 feet at high water, ordinary neap tides, and $13\frac{1}{2}$ feet at ordinary spring tides, have now ingress and egress to either, as the wind may prevail. Belmullet about forty years ago was almost inaccessible, but the fine roads constructed by Messrs. Nimmo, Knight, and Bold, and the canal recently made, have tended to make it a place of some commercial importance. Broadhaven is the most northerly of those harbours on the western coast, so admirably adapted for transatlantic packet stations; and although a good and safe harbour, it is not so eligible for the purpose as Blacksod Bay, which is esteemed by many superior to any on the western coast. On Eagle Island, in the Atlantic, about two miles from Errishead, off the western shore of the Mullet, in $54^{\circ} 7' N.$, $10^{\circ} 6' W.$, two lighthouses were erected in 1835, at a cost of £30,000, the lanterns of which are 220 feet above high water, and display two fixed white lights, seen twenty miles to sea. Between the extreme southern point of the Mullet and Saddlehead, on the north of Achill Island, is the entrance to Blacksod Bay, a capacious and safe harbour, stretching boldly out into the Atlantic, and affording shelter within to innumerable vessels requiring the greatest depth of water. The best anchorage is on the south-west side of the bay, near Barnach island, where there is twenty-five to thirty feet of water; and the best point for a packet station, or pier for large vessels, is Termon, at the south-west extremity of the Mullet, and near the entrance to the Bay. But a fatal objection exists to it as a transatlantic packet station, it being at a greater distance from the east coast than any other western port, and no railway nearer than the Midland Great Western at Mullingar, or the Dundalk and Enniskillen at the latter place, both being at a distance of from eighty to one hundred miles; indeed, with the exception of the former from Galway to Athlone, there is not another mile of railway in the province of Connaught. South of this bay

is the island of Achill, the largest on the Irish coast, containing 46,401 acres, being the property of Sir R. A. O'Donnel and the Marquis of Sligo. This island is formed by Blacksod Bay on the north, and Clew Bay on the south; and a channel communicating with both divides it from the main land, and forms its eastern, as the Atlantic does its western boundary. Clare Island is next made, lying well out in the Atlantic in $53^{\circ} 59' N.$, $9^{\circ} 58' W.$, and in front of the entrance to Clew Bay, one-third of which it covers, and, from its great height, forms a splendid breakwater against the swell of the vast sea, which sets in here with westerly gales. On the north side of the island stands a lighthouse, erected in 1806: the tower is only twenty-six feet high, but the lantern, from which is exhibited a fixed white light, is 349 feet above the level of the sea, and is seen at a distance of twenty-seven miles. Clew Bay is an expansive sheet of water, twelve miles long, and eight in breadth, and is entered by two channels, north and south of Clare Island. Inside the bay there is a lighthouse on Innisgort Island, erected in 1827; the tower twenty-six feet high, and the lantern, which exhibits a fixed white light thirty-six feet above high water, is seen at a distance of ten miles. This bay possesses many picturesque and imposing views, among which the conical peak of Knock or Croaghpatrick, the lofty mountains of Erriv and Baribola on the south, Naphin and Cartinarry, with the hill of Achill, on the north, and Clare Island rising majestically on the west, are the most conspicuous. The eastern estuary is occupied by a great number of small islands, creeks, and inlets, which afford safe refuge to vessels of every class. There is on the line of beach six navigable openings, the most important of which are those which lead to Newport on the north, and Westport on the south; some rich veins of copper and sulphur have been recently discovered at Currane in this bay.

NEWPORT, called Newport Pratt, is situated in the parish and barony of Barrishoole, county Mayo, 140 miles north-west of Dublin, and was formerly the most considerable port in the county Mayo. It is intersected by a fine river, which has its source in Lough Beltra, and falls into Clew Bay. The river of

Barrishoole also flows through the parish, and both abound with salmon, for taking which wiers are placed about half a mile from the town. Formerly the trade of this town was more extensive than at present, but the difficulty of communication with the interior has, in a great measure, transferred it to Westport, where its custom house business is now done, and its trade included therein. Its exports consist principally of grain to Great Britain, which does not amount to more than 1,000 or 1,200 tons annually. The quays are extensive and conveniently situated, and a pier was erected at the expense of Sir R. A. O'Donnell and the merchants of the town. The channel from the bay is safe and the harbour commodious, and vessels drawing ten feet of water can come alongside the quays. The Court House, in which sessions are held, is a small neat building, and there are Protestant and Catholic Houses of Worship in the town, as well as a National School. The Union Workhouse was opened in 1852 to accommodate 500 inmates, and there are two auxiliary houses which would contain 750 more. The Union comprises an area of 159,510 acres, population 15,379 persons, represented by ten elected and seven *ex officio* guardians; the property rated to the poor was valued at only £8,275, and the expenses for 1852 were £5,685 13s. 2½d. The rate in aid levied in 1851 and 1852 was only £69 1s. 8d., but there was issued of that fund to this Union £4,000 10s. 8d. Newport House, the seat of Sir R. A. O'Donnell, Bart., is in the vicinity of the town; and about three miles from it, on the sea shore, is Rockfleet Castle, formerly Carrick-a-Uile, built by the celebrated Grace O'Malley, better known as *Granua Uile*: she was the daughter of MacWilliam Outher, one of the De Burgh family, who in the reign of Edward III. threw off his English dress and allegiance, and assumed the Irish language, costume, and manners. In 1575, however, he submitted to Elizabeth's deputy Sir Henry Sydney, but Granua Uile scornfully refused to be included, and a body of troops were sent to storm her castle, which she defended so valiantly that the besiegers narrowly escaped being made prisoners. Grace was celebrated for her maritime exploits, and so attached to the sea, that it is said when she deigned to sleep on shore she had a rope from her barge fastened to her bed post.

WESTPORT.

WESTPORT is a maritime town in the parish of Aughaval, and barony of Marrisk, county Mayo, in $53^{\circ} 55'$ latitude, $9^{\circ} 45'$ longitude. It is situated on a small river at the S.E. extremity of Clew Bay, into which it falls. It is of modern date, and consists of three principal streets, and a mall on the banks of the river, which is well planted and affords an agreeable promenade. It comprises an area of 104 acres, and in 1831 contained 617 houses, and 4,448 inhabitants. In 1841 the houses were 654, and the population 4,365 persons. In 1851 the houses were 717, and the inhabitants 4,815: being an increase on 1841 of 63 houses and 815 persons; independent of which there were 2,991 inmates in the Union Workhouse. The town is greatly indebted to the late Marquis of Sligo for its present importance. The residence of the present Marquis is in the neighbourhood: it is a handsome and spacious structure, situated on the margin of a small lake. The demesne is beautified by the windings of Westport river, on which there are two picturesque cascades. It commands an extensive view of the bay, with its numerous islands and shipping. The river abounds with salmon, a great portion of which is exported to England. The late Marquis used to receive agricultural produce from his tenants in payment of their rents, and in the season exported a considerable quantity of oats. The port is advantageously situated for trade: vessels drawing thirteen feet of water can come to the quays. Spring tides rise to the height of fourteen feet, and neaps to eight feet. The Custom House and Queen's Stores are well suited for business, and the quays are commodious, being nearly a mile in length, and a good range of warehouses built thereon. There are fifteen Commissioners appointed under the 9 George IV., c. 82, for lighting, watching, and paving the town. There is occasion again to notice here the incorrectness of official returns, and the negligence of heads of departments, who place

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their names to documents which are intended for the information of parliament and the public, without taking the necessary precaution to insure their correctness. A parliamentary return No. 678, dated 28th June, 1853, states the number of householders in Westport to be 1,113, rated at £4; 319 at £8; 231 at £10; 184 at £12; and 106 at £15: total 1,953, and of these 831 eligible to elect the town commissioners, although the census returns of 1851 have only 717 houses of all descriptions in the town.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—There is an extensive distillery established here since 1826 by Mr. A. Levingstone, which distils upwards of 60,000 gallons of whiskey annually, and also a brewery, built by his father many years ago: both establishments employ about 150 men. The Messrs. Graham have another brewery and malt-house, and two salt works, and three corn stores on the quays, and a tan-yard in the town, employing about sixty persons. The marine flour and oatmeal mills were built in 1808, and are driven by water equal to thirty horse power. There is a cotton factory at Balcara, in which the power loom was introduced many years ago; and about two miles from the town were the bleach green, and cotton and linen manufactory of Messrs. Pinkerton and Thompson. Within the last thirty years the trade of Westport has increased considerably, but as far back as 1780 it had a very considerable herring fishery, which was the means of establishing it as a port. Its exports consist principally of agricultural produce, and its imports, foreign, consist of timber and deals from North America and the Baltic, and since the famine Indian corn from the east, and from Great Britain coals, iron, bark, tea, sugar, coffee, Indian corn and British manufactured articles. In 1834 it exported 116,117 quarters of grain, and 5,140 cwt. of flour and meal, and the customs' duties, including Newport, was only £508, while in 1847 they increased to £17,823; but for the year ending 5th January, 1854, they had again decreased to £7,073 10s. 11d. The railway commissioners return the amount of the exports for 1835 at £84,500, and the imports at £28,000. The trade of this port, including that of Newport, will be best shown by the following Tables:—

WESTPORT AND NEWPORT.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of these Ports, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending with the five preceding years.

Years ending 5th January	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Shipping.	Customs' Duties Collected.													
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					TOTAL INWARDS.					Foreign Trade.							British and Coasting Trade.					TOTAL OUTWARDS.							
	British.		Foreign.			Total.	British.		Foreign.			Total.	British.		Foreign.			Total.	British.				Foreign.			Total.	British.		Foreign.			Total.			
	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.		Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.		Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.		Tonn.	Vess.			Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.		Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.		Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.
1841..	3	632	1	164	4	796	106	9005	110	9801	4	1078	4	1078	137	11468	141	12546	4	60	7545												
1842..	9	1853	1	120	10	1973	82	6419	92	8392	5	1214	5	1214	108	9972	113	11186	4	60	10924												
1843..	9	1536	9	1536	80	6577	89	8113	7	1954	7	1954	123	10188	130	12142	4	60	11435												
1844..	2	335	2	335	73	6145	75	6480	1	210	1	210	151	14441	152	14651	4	83	12109												
1845..	7	1198	7	1198	83	6697	80	7895	3	577	3	577	168	16379	171	16956	4	159	14303												
	30	5554	2	284	32	5838	424	34843	456	40681	20	5033	20	5033	687	62448	707	67481	20	422	56316												
1846..	6	1076	6	1076	69	5532	75	6608	3	818	3	818	169	15446	172	16264	5	197	14121												
1847..	14	2590	1	147	15	2737	100	8810	116	11547	9	1767	1	147	10	1914	112	9466	122	11380	6	317	17823												
1848..	36	6659	19	3801	55	10460	207	18212	262	28672	44	6783	18	3960	62	10733	55	4058	117	14791	5	247	15376												
1849..	27	4807	9	2041	36	6848	108	7503	144	14351	9	2041	6	981	15	3022	72	5770	87	8792	5	209	14173												
1850..	50	8125	20	4274	70	12399	95	7361	165	19760	27	5309	21	5167	48	10476	42	3847	90	14323	5	209	14182												
1846 to '50	133	23257	49	10263	182	33520	579	47418	761	80938	92	16718	46	10245	138	26963	450	38587	588	65550	26	1179	75635												
1841 to '45	30	5554	2	284	32	5838	424	34843	456	40681	20	5033	20	5033	687	62448	707	67481	20	422	56316												
1841 to '50	163	28811	51	10547	214	39358	1003	82261	1217	121619	112	21751	46	10245	168	31996	1137	101035	1295	133031	46	1601	131951												
Incr. ...	103	17703	47	9979	150	27682	155	12575	305	40257	72	11685	46	10245	118	21930	237	23861	119	1931	6	757	19319												
																								Incr.											

These Tables show, that during the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered these ports from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 39,328 tons, of which 10,547 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 82,261 tons: total Inwards 121,619 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 31,996 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 10,425 tons were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastways 101,085 tons: total Outwards 133,031 tons. There were registered in this port 46 vessels of 1,601 tons, and the Customs' duties collected therein was £131,901. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade Inwards of 27,082 tons, of which 9,979 tons were Foreign shipping; and on that with Great Britain and Coastways 12,575 tons: total increase Inwards 40,257 tons. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 21,980 tons, of which 10,425 tons were Foreign shipping; and on the British and Coasting trade there was a decrease of 23,861 tons: leaving a decrease on the general trade Outwards of 1,981 tons. There appears to be an increase of 6 vessels of 737 tons on the registered shipping, which is owing to the same vessels being registered annually, but the actual increase on 1800 over 1845 was 1 vessel and 50 tons, and on the Customs' duties there was an increase of £19,319 on the five years.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port (including Newport), the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows :—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tnqe.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Trade. Tnqe.	Foreign Tnqe.	Brit. and Coasting Tnqe.	Foreign Trade. Tnqe.	Brit. and Coasting Tnqe.	Coasting Tnqe.		
1851 ..	4,561	1,386	5,160 ..	2,121	1,797	3,557 ..	208	10,167
1852 ..	5,001	5,542	5,722 ..	3,583	5,028	2,354 ..	207	9,264
1853 ..	2,931	1,648	4,270 ..	1,300	1,976	4,784 ..	207	7,149
1854 ..	1,550	2,582	4,043 ..	1,144	2,591	4,000 ..	207	7,073

The Foreign trade, therefore, of this port for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 9,865 tons, and the British and Coasting 8,717 tons. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 19,154 tons, and the British and Coasting 8,076 tons : being an increase on the former of 9,289 tons, and on the latter a decrease of 641 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 7,855 tons, and the British and Coasting 9,054 tons : being a decrease on the former of 11,299 tons, and an increase on the latter of 978 tons. In 1854 the Foreign trade was 7,867 tons : being a small increase of twelve tons, and on the British and Coasting trade there was a decrease of 1,011 tons. In the registered shipping there was no alteration, there being five vessels of 208 tons in 1851, and the same in 1854, difference only a single ton, which may probably have occurred in the re-measurement ; but in the Customs' duties there has been a serious falling off of £3,094. The number of persons employed in collecting the customs of this port in 1849 was forty-six, whose joint salaries amounted to £965 4s. 8d.

The Public Buildings are—the Court House, Custom House, Market House, Linen Hall, and Union Workhouse, built in 1845 to accommodate 1,610 inmates, and an auxiliary Workhouse for 810 more. The Union contains an area of 175,508 acres ; population 36,202 persons, in twenty electoral divisions, represented by twenty-one elected and fourteen *ex officio* guardians, who meet on Thursdays. The property rated to the poor was valued in 1852 at £22,598, and the expense of the establishment for that year £10,047 11s. 9½d. The rate in aid levied in this Union in 1851

and 1852 was £188 14s. 7d., and the amount issued to relieve the Union was £5,856.

The Houses of Religious Worship, are—a Protestant Church, situated within the demesne of the Marquis of Sligo. A Catholic Church, erected in 1820 by the late most Rev. Dr. Kelly, Archbishop of Tuam, at an expense of £6,000: it is a fine spacious building and handsomely embellished. There is a Meeting House for Presbyterians connected with the Synod of Ulster of the third class, and another for Wesleyan Methodists. There are Schools here connected with the National Board of Education.

Proceeding from Westport harbour, Louisburgh, on the south side of Clew Bay, and Cahir Island, are passed. The coast is wild and uninteresting until Killery Bay is reached, which separates the counties of Mayo and Galway. It runs about eleven miles inside the land, and is surrounded by lofty mountains; one of these, Muilrea, on the north side, is 2,773 feet above the level of the sea. This harbour, although well sheltered and deep, is not easy of access, and is shut out from almost any communication with the interior. Ballinakill and Claggin Bays, on the Connemara coast, are easy of access, have good anchorage in deep water, and are tolerably well sheltered. Innisboffin Island is opposite the latter, and situated most advantageously for fishing purposes. Cromwell erected a fort on it to protect it from the Dutch, whose principal deep sea fishing was then off this coast. The harbour can accommodate a great number of vessels not drawing more than ten or eleven feet of water, and is placed in the centre of those immense fishing banks which extend from Lough Foyle to Cape Clear. Although there is now little or no herring fishing on the west coast, the sea literally teems with them. Towards the close of the last century this fishing in particular was very successful. In 1779 there were 410 vessels which claimed the bounty granted by the Irish parliament on 156,757 half-barrels of herrings, and 407,333 ling, cod, and hake. In 1782, as if to usher in the dawn of free trade, the coast swarmed with herrings, twenty-three million were caught off the Rosses, which were sold at 5s.

a thousand, and the commissioners of fisheries were assured that as many could have been taken as would have loaded every vessel in Great Britain. In 1784 the take of herrings was so great, and the means of curing them so inconsiderable, that vast quantities were boiled down for oil and sold at 10d. per gallon, but a much larger proportion was left to rot on the shore. Killery harbour is probably one of the best on the coast for herring fishing, and after it ceases in the Orkneys and other northern points, the fish are to be found in all seasons in deep water off this coast, and of a much larger size than those that approach the shore. Clifden is the next harbour of importance, and in the bay there is deep water and safe anchorage for vessels of any burden. Many nautical men consider this the best harbour on the coast for large vessels, and the ships of war, when on service in the Atlantic, frequent it, where they ride out the severest gales in perfect security. Slyn Head is next made, and on the most westerly of the islands off this point two lighthouses have been placed in $53^{\circ} 23'$ north, $10^{\circ} 14'$ and $10^{\circ} 16'$ west: the towers are seventy-three feet high, and the lanterns 104 and 96 feet above the level of the sea, and display respectively a white revolving, and a fixed light seen at a distance of fourteen miles. The coast now bears in to the east, on which is Roundstone Bay, sheltered by the Islands of Innisnee and Innislacken. This is a fine harbour, and the whole British war navy might ride in it in perfect security. Higher up the same inlet is Birterbuy Bay, with good anchorage, but little frequented. Still more to the east is Kilkerrin Bay, surrounding which there is near 100 miles of shore, where large quantities of kelp, the best in Ireland, was formerly made. Caslah, or Costello Bay, is the most eastern of the Connemara inlets. This district contains twenty safe and capacious harbours, twenty-five navigable lakes, each exceeding a mile in length, and an extent of coast, including its islands, of 400 miles. To the south of this coast lies Galway Bay, having its entrance well protected by the Isles of Arran, thirty miles W.S.W. of Galway. They consist of three large islands, and a small group convenient to them called the "Brannocks," occupying fourteen miles of the expanse at the mouth of the bay, and leaving on either side navigable channels of about four miles,

with two smaller sounds between the islands, each about a mile in width, in which there is from fifteen to twenty fathoms of water. In the approach to Galway Bay, it has probably advantages over all other ports on the west coast, from the circumstance of the bed of the sea outside these islands affording peculiar soundings for eighty or ninety miles in a direct communication with the two headlands, which form the entrance to the Bay. These islands compose a splendid natural breakwater, inside of which there is smooth water: the largest is called Arranmore, or the Great Arran, which is the most northerly, and is eleven miles in length. In the centre is a signal tower, and at Oaghill, on the summit, is a lighthouse in $53^{\circ} 7' 38''$ N., $9^{\circ} 42' 22''$ W., the tower is thirty-seven feet high, and the lantern, which displays a revolving white light every three minutes, is 498 feet above high water, and is seen twenty-eight miles to sea. Many nautical men, however, consider this light improperly placed, and that at the most northerly point of the island it could be exhibited to more advantage. There are now, however, two other lighthouses erecting on the north and south extremities of these islands, which will, no doubt, render these leading lights complete, and enable vessels of any burden, and in any weather, to enter the bay and run up to the head of it. The only dangers inside are the Marguerita and Blackrock shoals: on the former there is a buoy, and only eleven feet at low water spring tides, and the latter is dry at low water: they are both about three miles from Mutton Island, and by placing a light on either of them, all risk would be avoided. There is, however, a guiding light on Mutton Island, which is seen at a distance of ten miles, and will take vessels clear of them. To render Galway harbour complete, it will be necessary to unite Mutton Island with the main land, and to erect a breakwater extending from the south-east point of the island to protect the roadstead. As the harbour is now circumstanced, there is a bar at the mouth of the Corrib river, on which there is only a depth of five feet at low water spring tides, but in the channel there is thirteen or fourteen feet to within a very short distance of the docks. The anchorage under Mutton Island, which is called the Harbour, is sufficiently deep at low water for the largest vessels to ride in, and the holding ground is excellent.

GALWAY.

GALWAY is a county of a town, situated on the north side of Galway Bay, in $53^{\circ} 14'$ north, $9^{\circ} 3'$ west, $126\frac{1}{2}$ miles west of Dublin, and 51 miles N.N.W. of Limerick. It is probably the *Nuguatha* of Ptolemy, from the circumstance of its ancient appellation of *Cuan Nuguactie*, "the harbour of the small Islands." It comprises an area of 21,432 acres, of which 628 are in the town. In 1831 the population of both was 33,120, of which 32,117 were catholics, 922 protestants, and 81 protestant dissenters. In 1841 there were in the town 2,504 houses, population 17,275; and in the rural district 2,251 houses, and 15,236 persons. In 1851 the houses within the town were 2,780, and the population 20,686: being an increase on 1841 of 276 houses and 3,411 inhabitants. The town is built on both sides of a river which has its source in Lough Corrib, the largest lake in Connaught, covering 30,000 acres, and having a subterraneous communication with Lough Mask at Cong, about two miles from thence. After passing the ferry of Knock it becomes an extensive sheet of water until within three miles of Galway, when it assumes the character of a river, which it retains until it falls into that bay. Over this river there are three bridges, which connect the old and new town, and the suburb of Claddagh, inhabited solely by fishermen. It is a parliamentary borough, and returned two representatives to the Irish Parliament, which was reduced to one on the passing of the Act of Union, and obtained its former number under the Reform Act. The elective franchise, which had been formerly exclusively exercised by the mayor, burgesses, freemen, and 40s. freeholders, was extended by the Act of the 2nd of William IV., c. 88, to householders paying £10 rent. The number of registered electors after the passing of this act in 1834 was 2,062; in 1849 they decreased

to 1,822; in 1851, under the 13th and 14th Vic., c. 69, they further decreased to 1,038; and in 1853 they increased to 1,286, but of these there were only 461 rated occupiers, 687 being freemen, and 138 of other qualifications. The present members are Anthony O'Flaherty and Martin Joseph Blake, Esqrs., both residents of the county. The bay, if not the town of Galway, presents itself early to historical consideration as being the western, as Dublin Bay was the eastern, extremity of that line, drawn by Heber and Heremon, and subsequently by Eogan or Eugene, king of Munster and Con, of the hundred battles, to divide the country between them, as shown in the History of Dublin. The Danes had early possession of Galway, but after the battle of Clontarf they appear to have deserted it, and the natives built a strong castle for its defence, which was attacked in 1132 by Connor O'Brien, king of Munster, and razed to the ground. It was rebuilt, and in 1149 again destroyed by Turlough O'Brien. The ships from this port, which were called "the Galway Dune," took part in the expedition fitted out in 1154 by Roderic O'Connor against O'Loghlin, prince of Tyrone, whose territories he devastated. In 1161 a fleet of foreign ships entered the harbour and set fire to the town. In 1170 it was also burned down: so that when the Anglo-Normans invaded the country there were only a few families and some fishermen residing in it under the protection of the O'Flahertys, lords of the castle and surrounding territory, and who warmly adhered to the cause of Feidlim O'Connor against the De Burghs. In 1230 Hugh O'Flaherty fortified the castle, and successfully resisted every attempt of the De Burghs to dispossess him, but Feidlim being defeated two years after by Richard De Burgh, the castle and town fell into his hands; and although he abandoned it for a time, he ultimately made it his residence and the capital of the province. By his own authority he appointed a municipal governor, and strengthened the town by additional fortifications. In 1270 walls to encompass it were commenced, but not finished for several years after: the security it afforded induced many to settle in it, and among others thirteen or fourteen families, called the tribes of Galway, who enriched themselves by commerce and the purchase of lands in the neighbourhood. In 1310 the great

gate and additional works were erected by Nicholas Lynch, the Provost Marshal. William De Burgh, who was assassinated by his own servants, left an only daughter to inherit his estates. The junior branches of the family, apprehensive that her marriage would alienate them, threw off their English costume and allegiance, and assumed the Irish names of MacWilliam Eighter, and MacWilliam Oughter. The former took possession of the town and the territory as far as the Shannon; but on accomplishing his purpose, reconciled himself to the English government: while the latter seized on the extensive estates in the county Mayo, and continued independent until the reign of Elizabeth. In 1375 the town obtained a charter of the staple, and was placed on a commercial equality with Dublin, Cork, and Waterford. In 1396 Richard II. granted a charter to the town, conferring on it many valuable privileges, and the customs of the port in perpetuity to repair the walls. This charter was confirmed in 1402 by Henry IV., who also granted it a licence to coin money. In 1484 another charter was extended to the town, placing its government in a mayor and bailiffs, and ordaining that neither the Lord MacWilliam of Clanrickarde, nor any of his family, should exercise any authority within its limits. In 1493 the mayor, James Lynch Fitzstephen, had his own son executed for murder: and hearing that it was intended to rescue him from prison, had him removed to his own house and hanged from one of the windows, under which was carved a skull and cross bones, to mark the public abhorrence of this tragical event. In 1545 a new charter was obtained, defining the limits of the port to extend from the Isles of Arran to the town, and permitting the free export of all commodities except woollen and linen cloth, which were previously exempt from prisage. Edward VI. confirmed by another charter all those granted by his predecessors, and the town continued to increase in prosperity. The tyrannical conduct of Sir E. Fitton, first President of Connaught, having excited an insurrection, the inhabitants called in the assistance of MacWilliam Eighter to protect them. In 1579 Elizabeth granted the town a reversionary interest in the dissolved monasteries, the fisheries, the cocket duties, and in lands of the value of 100 marks. In 1594 Hugh Roe O'Donnell, having

nearly laid waste the province of Connaught, fired the suburbs of Galway, but retired without investing the town. In 1600 Lord Mountjoy erected a strong fort on the site of the Augustinian monastery, which commanded the town and harbour. James I. granted Galway a charter, constituting it and the surrounding district, extending two miles, a county of a town, and appointed the Earl of Clanrickarde governor. At the commencement of the civil war of 1641, Ulick De Burgh, now created Marquis of Clanrickarde, took military possession of the town, which he held for the king; but his exertions to retain it were defeated by the violence of Captain Willoughby, who had the command of the fort, which induced the inhabitants to open their gates to Preston, one of the Gormanstown family, and General of the army of the confederates in the west. During the eleven years which this war continued, Galway remained in their possession; but Preston, who was jealous of Owen Roe O'Neill's popularity and great military capacity, did not co-operate as cordially with him in the field as he might have done to render the cause they were embarked in successful, and he was strongly suspected of aiding Clanrickarde privately in his unconditional support of royalty. In 1649 the number of persons who took refuge in the town was so great, and the accommodation so deficient, that the plague broke out in July, and continued until January, 1650, in which time 3,700 persons fell victims to its ravages. The pope's nuncio Rinuccini took shipping here for the continent, and Preston followed soon after. Charles II., at the instance of the Scotch commissioners, annulled, by his signing the treaty of Breda, the concessions, which Ormond had so unwillingly extended to the Irish Catholics, and this act, connected with the hypocrisy, treachery, and deceit practised by himself in his long intercourse with them, so thoroughly disgusted them with his government, that he was obliged to resign it into the hands of Clanrickarde, and retire to the continent. The new Lord-deputy, if he could be called such, being a Catholic, it was supposed the Irish would rally round him; but his attachment to Ormond, and the universal distrust they now entertained of all royal professions, prevented their supporting him, with the exception of Sir Phelim O'Neill, who appeared early

in the war, but had withdrawn for a considerable time: he now, in conjunction with Clanrickarde, reduced Ballyshannon and Donegall, but being attacked by a superior force, Sir Phelim was taken prisoner and suffered for his temerity; while Clanrickarde, with a few followers, took safety in his native woods and mountains, and was at length permitted by General Fleetwood to depart the kingdom. Galway all this time held out both against the parliament and the king; and Cromwell, or his successor Ireton, after capturing Drogheda, Clonmel, and Limerick, did not attempt to reduce it. In 1652, however, it was invested by Coote with an overwhelming parliamentary force, and the inhabitants surrendered on condition that their privileges should be guaranteed, native prisoners liberated without ransom, and a restoration of all captured property. In 1658, on Richard Cromwell being proclaimed Protector, the tumult was so great that the corporation was threatened with the loss of its charter. In 1690 the town was strongly garrisoned by James II., which was still further reinforced the following year. In 1691, after the battle of Anghrim, General de Ginkle invested it with an army of 14,000 men flushed with victory. The garrison held out for some time, but surrendered on condition that it should be allowed to march out with military honours and proceed to Limerick, and that the property and privileges of the inhabitants should be respected. The fort over the town was repaired, and another erected on Mutton Island for the protection of the harbour. In 1798 the inhabitants formed themselves into eight companies of volunteers, and on the landing of the French under Humbert, at Killala, the merchants supplied General Hutchinson with money, which enabled him to join Lake, with the garrison and yeomanry of the town, who, consequently, shared in the ignominious retreat of the two generals at Castlebar.

Town and Harbour Improvements.—About the commencement of the nineteenth century the walls were levelled, and the new town extended into the suburbs, so as to become an important portion of Galway. The more ancient part has all the appearance of a Spanish town, many of the houses being quadrangular, with

an open court and arched gateway at the entrance, and the inhabitants themselves bear a strong resemblance to the Spanish race. A charter, 29th Charles II., ordained that the corporation should consist of a mayor, two sheriffs, a recorder, two constables of the staple, an indefinite number of free burgesses, and other municipal officers. The mayor was elected by the burgesses and might appoint a deputy; the burgesses elected each other; the freemen were admitted by favour only. The mayor and recorder were magistrates of the county at large, as well as of the town. The corporate body, however, was dissolved by the Act of 3rd and 4th Vic., c. 108. The municipal body of such a town as Galway should have been preserved; and so convinced was Mr. O'Connell of the injustice of the Irish Municipal Act in respect to it, that he opposed its passing without having Galway excluded from Schedule B, where it had been most unfairly placed for dissolution. The sheriff and recorder still maintain their jurisdiction under the ancient charters: and while it was in abeyance the town applied and obtained an Act in 1836, the 6th and 7th William IV., c. 117, appointing a chairman and twenty-four commissioners, to be elected triennially, who had the management of the ingate and outgate tolls, which were appropriated to the paving, lighting, watching, and cleansing the town, and were imposed, in lieu of those granted by 19th of Richard II. and 20th of Elizabeth, towards keeping the walls and streets in repair. This Act was repealed in 1853 by the 16th and 17th Vic., c. 200, and although many of its conditions were retained, its powers were considerably extended. It enables the commissioners to borrow money to the amount of £40,000, to be expended in building new streets, one of these to extend from Lough Corrib to the sea, to supply every house in the town with pure water, to erect fountains, to light, pave, and watch the town as under the former Act, to levy inward and outward tolls, and to exact from property in the town a rate not to exceed one shilling in the pound, to be levied on the poor rate valuation. The former number of commissioners has been retained, but the town is divided into four wards, south, west, north, and east, each of which elect six commissioners to represent them. To qualify a commissioner under this Act he must be in occupation of premises

to the value of £20 per annum, rated to the poor, or possessed of rents or profits of lands situated within the borough to that amount, and registered as a parliamentary elector, and his poor rate thereon paid up. An elector's qualification consists in having a freehold or leasehold property to the value of £20, or occupying a house or premises of the value of £8, rated to the poor, and previous to his being allowed to vote, all rates due or owing by him under the provisions of this Act must be paid. The commissioners and electors to reside within two miles of the collegiate Church of St. Nicholas. Agricultural produce and almost every description of goods are liable to these tolls: under the former Act they were let immediately after its passing for three years at £840 per annum. At the expiration of that term they were again let at £1,710 a year. In 1844 the commissioners took them into their own hands, when they produced £2,158; the succeeding year they increased to £2,346. In 1847, the first year of the recent famine, they declined to £952, and in 1849 to £694. In 1850, the country in some degree recovering from the famine, they increased again to £1,049. Under the new Act, including craneage, they produced £1,067 8s. 6d., and presentments, manure, &c. £332 11s. 2d.: total income for the year ending 1st October, 1854, £1,399 19s. 8d. At the close of the preceding year, the commissioners owed £445 8s. 2d.; and after expending £885 16s. 9d., on watching, paving, and cleansing the town, and paying a portion of the costs of procuring the new Act, the debt is now reduced to £136. Two Acts, 11th George IV., c. 122, and 1st and 2nd William 4, c. 54, were passed for making and maintaining a navigable canal from Lough Corrib to the Bay of Galway, and for the improvement of that harbour. A board of sixty-three commissioners was appointed for life to fulfil these duties. These Acts were also repealed in 1853, by the 16th and 17th Vic., c. 207, enacted for making a pier and breakwater in the Bay of Galway, and for conferring additional powers on the harbour commissioners. The former Acts authorized them to borrow £50,000, but the present Act extends their power in that respect, to which not only the harbour dues are liable, but also the property of the county of the town of Galway. It provides that the pier shall commence or join the Claddagh Quay, and passing along

and over the Claddagh, the Marsh, Shingle Beach, the Strand, and Mutton Island, extend 2075 feet from thence in a S.E. direction into deep water in Galway Bay. The expense of this undertaking is estimated variously; some insisting that it will take £180,000, while others say it will be completed for £50,000. Under the new Act the number of commissioners is reduced to twenty-four, one-third of whom are to vacate triennially. To be a commissioner of this board it requires a freehold or copyhold property of £100 a year, a real or personal estate of £3,000, or to be heir apparent to a person possessed of £200 per annum. Electors to be in possession of premises rated to the poor at £15, or in receipt of rents amounting to £20, out of property situated in the town, or pay £5 per annum harbour dues. Commissioners and electors to be resident within the limits of the town. Since 1832 some extensive and valuable improvements have been made; floating docks have been constructed at a cost of £40,000, of which the Board of Works advanced £24,000 on loan. Up to 1850 there was £4,441 of the principal, and £10,251 interest paid thereon. Of these sums the instalments in 1849 were £2,622, and £2,258 in 1850. On the 24th June, 1854, the loan was reduced to £12,402 14s. 10d., and the interest thereon £742 2s. 9d. Since then a further loan of £6,900 has been obtained, according to the Boards' account, which bears interest £503 13s. 10d., and the total amount due it 31st July, 1854, was £20,568 11s. 5d.; it will have to give credit for £389 10s. 3d., being the excess of income over expenditure for the year ending 31st July, 1854; the total income of the port for the year was £1,361 15s. 6d., derived from tonnage dues of 6d. per ton on all shipping, and if they used the docks 8d. per ton, rates on goods outwards and inwards, pilotage, ballast, quayage, &c. These docks afford immense accommodation to the trade of this port. Their entrance gates are fifty-six feet wide, with sixteen feet of water on the sill; their area is over six statute acres, having 3,110 feet of quayage. From 1847 to 1850, when foreign vessels with bread stuffs, of large tonnage and sharp in their build, frequented the harbour, some of them drawing seventeen and eighteen feet of water, they lay afloat in the roads, where they were lightened to fifteen feet, and then taken into dock;

but during the prevalence of very high tides vessels drawing sixteen feet have passed into them. Notwithstanding the great utility of these docks, it would probably have been better, under existing circumstances, to have constructed the pier and breakwater in the first instance; the £40,000 laid out on the docks would have gone far towards the cost thereof, and if the trade of the port afterwards increased, so as to require extensive docks, Lough Athalia, skirting the town, and comprising twenty acres, only required to be deepened to afford the most ample accommodation of that kind. The projected canal from the harbour to the town, and from thence to Lough Corrib, is completed, and another, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, which was to have united it with Loughs Mask and Carra, has been discontinued by the Board of Works, most unfairly and contrary to its agreement with the people of Galway, who were to have the benefit of the navigation of these lakes to Ballinrobe. A considerable extent of land, long flooded by these improvements, has been reclaimed, and important sites for mills obtained at Cong, having a never-failing supply of water from Corrib lake, which affords a reservoir of 22,000 acres, while at Galway the supply of water to the existing mills has been greatly increased, and new sites formed of more extensive power. So badly were the arrangements made for obtaining water some years ago, that many of the mills and other manufactories were frequently in the summer months without any, although the river Corrib was passing idly by them to the sea. Mr. W. T. Mulvany, one of the commissioners of public works, in his communications to the Transatlantic Packet Commission in 1850-51, stated, "that the operations they were then carrying on would enable them to utilize 66,000 acres of lakes as reservoirs, and have a catchment basin of 780,000 acres; and that every mill or factory existing, or which might be formed, would draw its supply direct from the lake, and have the benefit of the fall between it and the sea. Without damming up or conserving supplies, 1,500 to 2,000 horse power could be obtained in the space of half a mile, in the centre of a seaport town, and every mill and factory have available navigation to its door." Here, then, are immense advantages to be derived from a power equal to steam, and so much cheaper, and which is applicable to all manufacturing purposes. Flax and

cotton spinning, however, is sought for in vain in the district, notwithstanding all these facilities, and what is still more, a numerous population in it without employment and anxious to obtain it. The town of Galway distinguished itself on the occasion of the inquiry instituted at the instance of the Treasury and the Admiralty in 1850, to ascertain the harbour in Ireland best suited for a transatlantic packet station. Among those who made the most powerful exertions to demonstrate the great superiority that Galway possessed not only over Liverpool and Holyhead, but over every other harbour whose pretensions were canvassed on the occasion, was the very Rev. Peter Daly, to whom Galway is greatly indebted. But the inquiry in regard to selecting any of the competing Irish ports was a perfect mockery, and the country was put to considerable expense, without its being ever intended to remove the station further from Liverpool than Holyhead, no matter how plain a case was made out in favour of an Irish port. The evidence, however, that has been collected is valuable, and has tended to dispel much of the illusion and misrepresentation that previously existed in respect to the western coast. Towards the close of this work the subject will be resumed, and in the meantime the capabilities of the competing ports will be impartially described, as they are entered into or passed.

Manufactures, Trades, and Commerce.—The woollen manufacture was carried on here extensively in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and more recently that of linen cloth; and although both were of a coarse description, they employed a considerable portion of the population. The woollens are now confined to flannel, freize, and a kind of cadow or blanket. It was at one time attempted to introduce the weaving of fine linen into the Connemara district, but it was not successful, and, like the woollen, it now consists of what is termed narrows, and coarse canvass used for bags and packing wool and bacon for export. Some forty years ago large quantities of yarn, spun by hand, were sold in the markets of Galway, Tuam, and Loughrea; and extensive weavers and small bleachers, from Ulster and Leinster, previous to flax spinning by machinery, derived their supplies from thence. The females of this district were also

employed in knitting woollen stockings, which were agreeably soft and warm, but not durable: their estimated sale was about £10,000 per annum. The manufacture of kelp on this coast commenced about the year 1700, and was invariably brought to Galway for sale; its original price was 14s. or 15s. a ton; it gradually rose, until towards the end of the war it was £10 per ton. At one period the quantity made annually was put down at 10,000 tons, but the preference given by bleachers and soapmakers to alkali, extracted from soda, manganese, &c., and the abolition of the duty on salt, has nearly put a stop to it, and the seaweed, from which it was made, is now used for manure. There are extensive quarries of black marble at Ballinahinch, Merlin park, and Menlo: the quality is very beautiful, from its glossy surface and being free from white spots or specks. There is also an inexhaustible vein of grey marble at the latter place; some fine specimens of black marble chimney pieces have been manufactured in the town, for which machinery was constructed some years ago. There are granite and limestone quarries, the stone of a very superior description at Salthill, within a short distance of the town; and mines of lead and copper have been discovered at Oughterard, and coals in other parts of the district. Potters' clay is found in abundance at Craggs and Dunsandle, and tobacco pipes and coarse pottery manufactured from it. Previous to the famine of 1847 there were twenty-five mills employed on manufacturing flour, eight on oatmeal, and three on malt in the town; and twelve large mills in the neighbourhood engaged in the same pursuit. In 1851 there were upwards of fifty mills in the town alone, manufacturing flour, oatmeal, malt, Indian corn meal, and in sawing timber and marble, all driven by water from Lough Corrib, which divides itself into seven great branches, watering every portion of the town. There were four large distilleries in full operation in Galway, from 1837 to 1839; in 1840 there were only two; and from 1841 to 1845 they were reduced to one: since then there have been two at full work. These fluctuations or variations in the trade were owing to Father Mathew's total abstinence lectures in Connaught. There are also three breweries, three foundries, a paper mill, which sends considerable quantities of paper to Dublin, one tan yard, three soap, one woollen,

one hat, and three rope manufactories. A considerable portion of the female population in the town and neighbourhood, and in the work-house, are employed in figuring and embroidering muslin and light cottons. Gas works were established by a joint-stock company in 1836, by which the town and docks are well lit. Galway was a place of commercial as well as manufacturing importance in the fourteenth century, and had considerable trade with France, Spain, and Portugal, from whence it imported large quantities of wine in exchange for its woollen and linen manufactures. In the reign of Henry VII. great rivalry existed between the merchants of Limerick and Galway: the latter having almost the exclusive supply of Ireland with wine, had vaults for that purpose in many towns throughout the kingdom—the ruins of those at Athboy are to be seen at the present day. The Ormond family about this period claimed its usual prisage on wine, against which the Galway merchants appealed to the court of Star Chamber, which decided in their favour, but they were prohibited from forestalling in the markets of Limerick. The import of wine into both places has materially fallen off, particularly since the Union, and notwithstanding the immense capabilities of the port, it is neither increasing in its trade foreign, or with Great Britain; probably portions of its manufactured articles, which formerly went by sea, particularly to Liverpool, are now sent by railway to Dublin. Previous to the famine it exported large quantities of wheat, oats, meal, and flour, but since then it has imported foreign wheat and Indian corn to a considerable extent, with its usual imports, which consist of timber, deals, hemp, tallow, and wine, foreign; and from Great Britain tea, coffee, sugar, iron, salt, tin, coals, bark, and British manufactured articles. Its exports are marble, flour, meal, oats, provisions, salmon, wool, linen, &c., to Great Britain, and it has latterly been exporting to America its splendid black marble slabs, an export which is likely to increase in that direction. The returns of the Irish Railway Commissioners estimate its exports for 1835 at £250,000, and its imports at £57,000.

The trade of the port will be best shown by the following Tables :—

GALWAY.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of this Port, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending with the five preceding years.

Years ending January 5th.	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Shipping. Vess. Tngs. £	Customers' Duties collected.	
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.							Total OUTWARDS.
	British.		Foreign.		Total.	British.		Foreign.		Total.	British.		Foreign.		Total.								
	Vess.	Tngs.	Vess.	Tngs.		Vess.	Tngs.	Vess.	Tngs.		Vess.	Tngs.	Vess.	Tngs.									
1841...	12	3253	..	12	3253	125	13751	137	17004	5	1245	1	209	6	1454	123	14547	129	16001	16	1925	26929	
1842...	16	3462	..	17	3572	95	10271	112	13843	7	2000	1	110	8	2110	141	16609	149	18719	20	2632	24687	
1843...	6	1140	..	6	1140	83	9666	89	10806	14	3181	14	3181	91	9987	105	13168	21	2888	23861	
1844...	12	2224	1	232	13	2466	96	10985	109	13441	10	2194	5	916	15	3110	132	14794	147	17904	18	3078	25094
1845...	17	2780	2	437	19	3217	99	10647	118	13864	13	2489	1	232	14	2721	171	20883	185	23604	17	2437	28045
	63	12859	4	779	67	13638	498	55320	565	68968	49	11109	8	1467	57	12576	658	76820	715	89396	92	12960	128116
1846...	22	5098	1	75	23	6173	108	12222	131	17395	12	2832	1	75	13	2907	177	21483	190	24390	18	2758	34060
1847...	29	6212	10	2520	39	8732	131	14557	170	23289	24	6101	1	212	25	6313	87	8875	112	15188	20	3616	40978
1848...	85	16065	54	10096	139	26161	173	20066	312	46227	102	20985	43	8691	145	29676	41	4354	186	34030	21	3933	37585
1849...	52	10497	11	2183	63	12680	154	18142	217	30822	61	11981	8	1466	69	13437	30	3116	89	16558	20	3894	35075
1850...	73	15036	26	3765	99	18801	85	8718	184	27619	45	11780	24	3544	69	15324	34	3105	103	18429	22	4265	31435
1846 to '50	261	52908	102	18639	363	71547	651	73705	1014	145252	234	53679	77	13978	311	67657	369	40933	680	108590	101	18466	179033
1841 to '45	63	12859	4	779	67	13638	498	55320	565	68968	49	11109	8	1467	57	12576	658	76820	715	89396	92	12960	128116
1841 to '50	324	65767	106	19418	430	86185	1149	129025	1579	214210	283	64788	85	15445	368	80233	1027	117783	1395	157986	193	31426	307149
Incr. ...	198	40049	98	17860	296	57909	153	18385	449	76294	185	42570	69	12511	254	55081	288	36887	35	19194	9	5606	50917 Incr.

These Tables show that during the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered this port from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 89,186 tons, of which 19,418 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 129,025 tons: total Inwards being 214,210 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 80,238 tons, cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 15,445 tons were Foreign Shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastways 117,783 tons: total Outwards being 157,986 tons. There were registered, belonging to this port, 193 vessels of 31,426 tons, and the Customs' Duties collected thereon was £307,149. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase in the Foreign trade Inwards of 57,909 tons, of which 17,860 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 18,385 tons: total increase Inwards being 76,264 tons. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 50,081 tons, of which 12,511 tons were Foreign shipping; in the British and Coasting trade there was a decrease of 38,887 tons, but an increase on the general trade (Outwards) of 19,184 tons. There appears to be an increase of 5,506 tons on the registered shipping, which is owing to the same vessels being registered annually, but the actual increase in live vessels of 1925 tons, or 75 per cent. on the shipping of 1845; the Customs' Duties also increased £50,917, or 39½ per cent.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows:—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tons.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Foreign Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Tons.	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Foreign Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Tons.		
1851..	8,941	9,252	10,135 ..	7,725	6,660	2,548 ..	4,036	30,035
1852 .	7,125	10,644	12,982 ..	8,946	11,600	3,871 ..	3,869	28,568
1853..	7,794	6,285	6,834 ..	4,655	5,680	4,432 ..	1,647	26,461
1854..	6,096	7,438	8,079 ..	4,027	7,614	5,858 ..	861	26,090

The trade of this port for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was therefore 32,578 tons foreign, and 12,683 tons in the British and Coasting trade. In 1852, the Foreign tonnage was 38,315 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 16,853 tons: being an increase on the former of 5,737 tons, and on the latter 4,170 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 24,414 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 11,266 tons: being a decrease on the former of 13,901 tons, and on the latter 5,587 tons. For the year ending 5th January, 1854, the Foreign trade was 25,175 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 13,937 tons: being an increase on the former of 761 tons, and on the latter 2,671 tons. The registered shipping, which consisted of twenty-two vessels of 4,036 tons in 1851, decreased in 1854 to fifteen vessels of 861 tons; but this looks like another official blunder, for the number of vessels returned for the former year was fourteen, and 1,647 tons, and it having increased within the year another vessel, it should be most likely 1,861 tons. The customs' duties, which were £30,035 in 1851, declined to £26,090 in 1854: decrease on the four years £3,945. There are no steamers belonging to this port, nor graving docks, or patent slips for building or repairing vessels, and the latter should be among the next improvements undertaken. There is a Chamber of Commerce established here, composed of the most respectable merchants and traders of the port.

Salmon and Herring Fisheries.—There is abundance of salmon in Corrib river and in Galway bay, the average quantity taken annually, since 1845, is ten tons. In 1853 the artificial propaga-

tion of this fish was introduced for the first time both here and at Oughterard. Ling and codfish, lobsters and other shell fish, are also to be had in quantity in the bay, and trawling has been recently resorted to with considerable success, the Claddagh fishermen using their own boats for that purpose. The herring fishery in 1845, and since that period, has been very successful, the fish frequenting the bay in immense shoals. The Claddagh fishermen claim the exclusive right of fishing in the bay; they elect a mayor, sheriff, and other officers on St. John's Day, and march through the town in procession. The mayor's boat is distinguished by a very white sail and flag, and when the fishing season commences the fleet assembles, and by a signal from it, the nets are cast and drawn simultaneously, after which every boat is allowed to fish at pleasure. Any infraction of these regulations is punished by the destruction of the offender's nets. A gun brig was sent some years ago to protect strange boats which might enter the bay for the purpose of fishing, but after she had left, the Claddagh fishermen resumed their dominion over its waters. The number of Claddagh sail boats employed in this fishery is about 150, from twelve to fifteen tons, and also 100 row boats; the former are principally engaged in the herring fishery, which is not confined to Galway Bay, notwithstanding their monopoly of it, their boats extending their fishing to Westport and Sligo on the north, and the Shannon on the south. Herrings do not appear to be cured to any extent, although so abundant, and probably the fish is all consumed fresh in the town and neighbourhood, or, since the opening of the railway, forwarded to Dublin or other more profitable markets. The Board of Public Works granted a loan of £300 towards building a quay and pier at Claddagh. The general fishery of this district extends from Blackhead to Mackhead, comprising 107 miles of maritime boundaries, and in 1851 had 1,083 registered vessels, employing 3,337 men and boys. It is really surprising that there is not more fish caught and cured on the W. and N.W. coast, capable as it not only is of supplying all Ireland, but also of contributing largely to the consumption of Spain, Portugal, and the Italian states, and for the privilege of fishing on it, the Dutch did not hesitate to pay Charles II. a handsome premium.

The Public Buildings are—The Court Houses for the county at large, and the county of the town of Galway, are both handsome buildings; the former is in the north part of the town, and was erected in 1815: the front is a chaste piece of architecture, with a portico supported by four fluted Doric columns. The County Gaol is built altogether of stone: it consists of six wards for criminals and two for debtors, and is capable of containing 150 prisoners, on the present system of gaol discipline. The New Town Prison is well adapted for the purpose. The County Infirmary. The Town Hospital. The Custom House. The Royal Galway Institution. The grand terminus of the Midland and Great Western Railway, attached to which is a magnificent Hotel and County Club House. The Amicable and Commercial News Rooms, Libraries. The Union Workhouse, built to accommodate 2,000 inmates, was opened in 1842; there is also an auxiliary Workhouse capable of containing 1,200 more: the Union comprises an area of 197,467 acres, and a population of 61,578 persons, in twenty-six electoral divisions, represented by thirty-two elected and thirty-two *ex officio* guardians, who meet on Fridays. The property rated under 6th and 7th William IV., c. 84, was valued at £60,411, and the expenditure for 1852 £8,427 19s. 1½d. There was no rate in aid levied in this union in 1851, and only £80 issued. In 1852 there was £502 13s. levied and none issued. The Castle Barracks, a handsome range of buildings for six officers and 136 men, and the Shamble Barracks, which furnishes accommodation for fifteen officers and 326 men.

The Houses of Religious Worship are—One Protestant and two Catholic Churches, three Franciscan, Augustinian, and Dominican Friaries, five Convents of the Orders of the Sisters of Mercy, Presentation, Poor Clares, Dominicans and Augustinians, one Presbyterian, and one Wesleyan Meeting Houses. The Protestant Church of St. Nicholas was constituted by Edward VI. the Royal College of Galway, and was granted by Elizabeth the revenues of the dissolved monasteries of Annadown and Ballintubber. It is cruciform in its structure, with a tower rising from the centre. It was erected in 1320, and is situated in the centre of the town.

The ecclesiastical commissioners some years ago granted £1,385 towards its repairs. The Catholic Churches are handsome spacious edifices, and the Chapels of the respective Friaries afford great accommodation to the inhabitants. The Dominican Friary particularly, which is situated in the centre of the Claddagh suburb, is a handsome edifice 100 feet in length by twenty-eight in width; it is built on the site of the ancient convent of St. Mary of the Hill, founded by the O'Halloran family, and was subsequently granted by Pope Innocent VIII. to the Dominican Friars of Athenree. At the Reformation it was, however, stripped of all its rich endowments. In 1642 Lord Forbes, in the war of the confederates, converted it into a battery, from which he expected to reduce the town, but failing in his design, he defaced the church and committed other outrages on the building. In 1652 the corporation, to prevent its falling into the hands of Coote's soldiers, levelled it with the ground. The protestant district was formerly part of the ancient bishopric of Enachdune, but was annexed in 1824 to the archiepiscopal see of Tuam. It consists of the parish of St. Nicholas, and parts of the parishes of Rahoon and Aranmore. In the Catholic division, it is the head of a see, and one of the six suffragan to Tuam, the parish of St. Nicholas being the benefice and residence of the Catholic Bishop.

The Educational Institutions are—The Queen's College, a building of considerable architectural beauty: its organization and discipline will be found under the head of "Queen's Colleges," in the statistics in this work. The National Schools, one of which is built on the site of the Barracks in Lombard Street, comprising two large school rooms, was built by subscription and cost £600; and a model school has been recently established here. A school in the eastern suburb, erected at a cost of £8,000 by the trustees to Erasmus Smith's bequest, the master of which has a salary from it of £100. The Parochial School is also aided by them. Another school, built some years ago, to which the government granted £250, and the inhabitants contributed £300. At the Presentation Convent there is a school where eighty girls are maintained, clothed, and educated, and the other similar institutions

contribute towards the education of the children of the poor. Independent of the schools, there is the Widows' and Orphans' Asylum, founded by the Rev. Mark Finn, a Catholic clergyman, late of St. Nicholas parish. The Magdalen Asylum, supported by Catholic ladies, and superintended by the Sisters of Mercy. A Poor House, exclusively for protestants, supported by a bequest of the late Mr. Kirwan of London, formerly a native of Galway, and the Catholic College of St. Dominick at Esker.

The amount of postage, excise, and stamps collected in Galway for the four years ending 5th January, 1853, was—

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Postage	£1,064	£1,267	£1,144	£1,717
Excise	37,537	39,753	47,218	55,080
Stamps	3,316	3,053	3,679	3,617

The number of persons employed in collecting the Customs' revenue of this port in 1849, was fifty-one, whose joint salaries amounted to £1,363 14s. 2d. The Bank of Ireland, the Provincial Bank, and National Bank of Ireland, have branches of their establishments here. There are four newspapers published—the Galway Vindicator and Packet, twice a week, and the Mercury and Express, weekly.

Proceeding from Galway Bay through the South Sound, Moher Cliffs, Hag's Head, and the extensive but rather wild coast occupied by Liscanor Bay, are passed. The only harbours between Galway Bay and the Shannon, a distance of about forty miles, is Miltown Malbay, which is dangerous from the rocks at its entrance, and Dunbeg equally so from its shallow and uncertain shore. Liscanor is only adapted for fishing craft. Kilkeel, if it can be called an harbour, is a bad one, but it is a handsome watering place, with a fine strand for the purpose, and much frequented by the inhabitants of Limerick. The Shannon is now entered between Cape Lean or Loophead, 270 feet high on the north, and Kerryhead, 710 feet high, on the south. On the former is placed a lighthouse in 52° 53' 39" N., 9° 56' 11" W.; the lantern of which is 269 feet above high water, and displays a fixed white light, seen twenty-two miles to sea.

THE RIVER SHANNON.

THIS magnificent river, which is not only the largest in Ireland, but of any other island on the globe, and conveys a greater body of water to the ocean than any continental river of the same extent, has its source in Lough Allen on the north-east part of the Island. Gough and Ferrar, however, state that it springs from the plains of Quilka, in the county Cavan; and Camden and Ware that its source is in *Shieve en eron*, in the county Leitrim. But as these and other tributary streams fall into Lough Allen, it may, with more propriety, be termed its source. Passing from this lake it flows through the centre of the kingdom, watering eleven out of the thirty-two counties of which it consists, and forming Lough Boffin, Lough Ree, and Lough Derg in its course, the two latter being considerable sheets of water. Its name is derived from the Irish words *Shan*, old; and *Avon*, a river. It was known to Ptolemy as *Senus*, and to Osorius as *Scena*, and the former mentions by name three of the largest cities which adorned its banks. The Shannon, from the north-east extremity of Lough Allen to the ocean, is 254 miles in length. Before it reaches Limerick it flows slowly and majestically on, displaying its bright surface to the sun, and seeming occasionally to slacken its pace, as if to breathe in its onward course to its destination. In the upper Shannon there are some considerable towns on its margin, such as Athlone, Banagher, Portumna, Killaloe, and Shannon harbour. At the former place it is crossed by the Midland, Great Western, or Dublin and Galway Railway. After passing Limerick, although it is shallow for fifteen miles at low water, it expands and deepens soon after, and has all the appearance of an immense arm of the sea, but it has no other name than the Lower Shannon until it disembogues itself in the Atlantic, sixty miles from that city. The entrance from thence is free from danger and easy of access from its great width, being eight miles across, with deep water close to either shore. Vessels

approaching the coast during the day, in clear weather, can discern the high land of Brandon, 3,217 feet above the level of the sea, at fourteen or fifteen leagues, and there are good soundings at about half the distance in sixty fathoms of water. At night Loophead and the Skilleg lights are good land marks. Inside the entrance there is a lighthouse on Kilkradane head $52^{\circ} 36' \text{ N.}, 9^{\circ} 42' \text{ W.}$, its lantern displaying a fixed white light 133 feet above the level of the sea, and seen at a distance of sixteen miles. Outside of this head it is not safe to anchor, but pilots are to be had at Killaha, two miles inside, in all weathers, their canoes living in seas that would swamp the best formed boats in the service. At Carrigaholt, or further up the river, in Tarbert and Scatterry roads, there is good anchorage, and at Kilrush, on the Clare side, there is a pier where vessels requiring a heavy draught of water, previous to the recent improvements, used to lighten or discharge their cargoes. It is situated in a commodious bay, which the river forms here; there are also two small islands in it, one of them the famed Scatterry Island, on which are the ruins of the seven churches, and in the midst of them, one of those interesting relics of antiquity, a round tower in a good state of preservation. From Kilrush to the island of Tarbert, on the opposite or Kerry shore, the river is from five to six miles in width. Tarbert is a fine harbour although much exposed to gales from the west and north-west, and to the swell or roll of the Shannon, particularly in what is called "the Race." A breakwater and docks would be required to make it efficient for commercial purposes, but to construct them there is no good building material in the neighbourhood, and it would be necessary to bring the stone from Foynes, which would render such works still more expensive. There is a wharf, but it can only be approached by boats at low water, and at spring tides there are only from twelve to fourteen feet along side. There is a lighthouse on Tarbert rock, in $52^{\circ} 37' \text{ N.}, 9^{\circ} 24' \text{ W.}$ The tower, fifty-eight feet high, displays a fixed white light, seen at a distance of thirteen miles. Convenient to it there are from ten to twelve fathoms water, and the holding ground so excellent that several vessels have been obliged to slip their cables and leave their anchors behind, after riding out the most severe gales in these

roads. About nine miles from Tarbert, higher up, is Foynes harbour, situated on the south side of the river, formed by an island of the same name and the main land of the county Limerick. It is about sixty acres in extent and well sheltered from all winds, being surrounded by high land on every side; the principal channel is 500 yards wide, it is perfectly safe to enter on the darkest nights and at any time of tide, and inside there is smooth and safe anchorage in a depth of from twenty-three to fifty feet at low water. It has another entrance, however, from the north-east, not so favourably circumstanced, being narrow and rather shallow, and vessels drawing more than ten feet water should not attempt it unless with a flood tide. A substantial pier, composed of heavy dressed ashlar, has been formed here: it extends from the main land into the harbour, and has 456 feet of wharfage, besides an inclined plane 240 feet in length. Alongside the wharf and pier-head the depth at low water is ten feet, with sixteen feet rise of tide, and the bottom consists of a soft alluvial substance, but the water deepens so immediately outside the pier-head that a small piled and framed jetty connected with it would enable vessels drawing twenty-four feet of water to go alongside at the lowest tide, and could be constructed for about £1,000. The pier is forty feet wide at its seaward termination, and affords ample room for railway communication. An act was passed last session for constructing a railway from this harbour to join the Limerick and Waterford Railway at the former place, the distance being twenty-six miles; and, from the country being perfectly level, and the excellence of the material on the spot, a single line of rails should be laid down at £5,000 per mile, at which the Killarney Junction was recently constructed. The harbour improvements at Foynes have been effected under the superintendence of the Board of Works, and agreeable to the provisions of the 2nd and 3rd Vic., c. 61, by which the expense was to be borne jointly by the Treasury, and by Lord Monteaigle, as proprietor of the soil, his proportion having amounted to £4,250. Foynes Harbour might be made a splendid basin, equal, if not superior, to that of Southampton; and capable of containing treble the number of large ships. The expense would be comparatively moderate, as it is within half a mile of the most extensive

limestone quarry in the south of Ireland; and at Barneen Point, on Foynes Island, nature has formed the most admirable site for a graving dock, with excellent limestone to construct it on the spot. Foynes should have been the port of the Shannon, and had there been such a city as Limerick built there even a century ago, its capabilities for commerce, both by land and water, and its central position would have rendered it ere this a place of first-rate importance. From the heads at the entrance up to Foynes Island, the Shannon may be considered all harbour, having deep water and good anchorage throughout: the only dangers attending the navigation are—Kilstraffen Bank, near Kilkradane Point; Beale Bar and the Kinan Shoal, near Scatterry Island; as well as Carrig Shoal on the opposite side, on which there are only twelve feet at low water spring tides, while in the intermediate channel there are from nine to sixteen fathoms; these should be buoyed, and a lighthouse erected on the north side of Foynes Island, which, with the lights already established at Kilkradane, Tarbert, and that now erecting on the Beeves Rock, would make the navigation perfect. The distance from Foynes to Limerick by water is only twenty-one miles. Foynes, although not originally mentioned as one of the competing ports for a Transatlantic packet station, in the late inquiry, has, during its progress, shown its immense capabilities for the purpose, and Lord Monteaigle, whose property it is, particularly distinguished himself for his disinterestedness and ability on the occasion. It has been very generally supposed that the difficulties and intricacies of the navigation of the Shannon commenced at the Beeves, five miles higher up the river, but there is a clear channel and deep water beyond that point. The real difficulties and obstructions commence at Beale Castle, four or five miles from thence, and twelve from Limerick; the river here becomes shallow, with several bars and shoals composed of hard clay and gravel, interspersed with rocks and loose stones, which, however, are capable of being removed at a moderate expense, and the channel deepened so as to have twenty-five feet of water at ordinary springs, and twenty-one feet at the lowest neap tides. When it is considered how Belfast and Cork have deepened so immensely their respective harbours, formerly so shallow, by

powerful dredging machinery, so as to admit the largest ships to their quays during the influence of the tide, and vessels of respectable tonnage at low water, similar operations at Limerick would be attended with like results. The advantages of rendering the Shannon navigable did not escape the comprehensive mind of that talented and calculating statesman, Wentworth, Earl of Strafford. During his administration of the Irish Government under Charles the First, he proposed to the parliament for an outlay of £60,000 to £80,000 to effect it throughout; but before he could put his plan in execution he was recalled, and soon after brought to the scaffold, one of the principal charges against him being that many of his Irish plans were intended to aggrandize and enrich himself at the expense of the nation. Immediately after the formation of the Board of Works in 1832, the principal members of which were denominated Shannon Navigation Commissioners, Captain Mudge, Surveyor to the Admiralty, was dispatched to report on the capabilities of the Lower Shannon, and Sir John Burgoyne, in a letter to the present Earl of Derby, then Chief Secretary for Ireland, in May, 1832, strongly urged the propriety of further improving its navigation. Reports and plans of surveys, &c., by Captain Mudge and Mr. Rhodes, the Board's Engineer, were laid before both Houses of Parliament during the session of that year, and a committee of the House of Commons, with the late Earl of Kerry as chairman, reported strongly in favour of the measure. In 1834 and the following session, the Marquis of Landsdowne in the Lords, and Mr. Spring Rice in the Commons, succeeded in obtaining an Act of 5th and 6th William IV., c. 67, for the improvement of the Shannon from the Atlantic to Lough Derg, and vesting the unlimited power, control, and conservation thereof in the Commissioners of the Board of Works, who were directed to hold courts of inquiry, to make surveys, draw up plans, estimates, and reports for such works as might be deemed necessary to carry the general plan of improvement into execution. Four years and £32,000 were devoted to attaining this object. Five elaborate reports, with plans and maps explanatory of the various works, were presented to parliament: the money required to carry them into effect increasing as the investigation proceeded, it ultimately

amounted to £584,805 17s. 9½d. for all the proposed works: £290,716 1s. 4d. thereof to be provided by a grant of public money, £266,334 6s. 2½d. to be levied off the counties and districts adjoining the intended works, and £27,755 10s. 3½d. to be contributed by proprietors of districts for improvements personally advantageous to them. In accordance with these provisions, an Act was passed in 1839, the 2nd and 3rd of Vic., c. 61, under the auspices of the promoters of the previous Act: in the Commons it met with some slight opposition, on the ground that it was injudicious to entrust the appropriation of so large a sum of public money to a newly appointed and consequently inexperienced Board; the act was, however, successfully carried, and a new establishment formed to give it immediate effect, the expense of maintaining which, up to December 31st, 1844, amounted to £14,326 8s. 1½d. A sum of £18,447 9s. was also received by the commissioners arising from rents and tolls for the five years ending 1844, viz:—

Expended on the Improvements.....	£32,773 17 1½
Expenses of the Commission under the Act of 5th and 6th William IV., c. 67, including the vote of 27th July, 1840, to pay £11,300 law expenses	23,003 0 0
Grant and Advances authorised by Act 2nd and 3rd Vic., c. 61	£584,805 17 9½
Total Sum available to these Improvements.....	<u>£640,582 14 11</u>

Previous to this very extensive parliamentary grant to improve the Shannon, there was £133,769 19s. 5d. obtained by way of loan from 1832 to 1836, for purposes principally in connexion therewith: of this sum there was apportioned to the improvement of the city and port of Limerick £128,300, viz:—

To construct Wellealey Bridge and Dock	£91,550 0 0
„ Athlunkard Bridge	9,850 0 0
To rebuild Thomond Bridge	9,000 0 0
To the Limerick Navigation Company to improve the Quays	£6,500 0 0
Ditto ditto other Works.....	8,900 0 0
	<u>15,400 0 0</u>
To Barrington's Hospital	2,500 0 0
	<u>£128,300 0 0</u>
There was also expended on Roads communicating with Limerick	5,469 19 5
	<u>£133,769 19 5</u>

£54,346, a portion of the £91,550 to be expended on Wellesley Bridge and Dock, had been obtained by the city of Limerick during the control and with the sanction of the commissioners of Inland Navigation, but the money was not issued until after the plan had been considered and approved of by their successors; notwithstanding which they state, in their report of 1832, that unforeseen difficulties had occurred, principally from the manner in which the earlier works had been executed; that completing the dock as originally projected was impracticable, and that a further considerable sum would be required to effect it agreeable to the new plan. Accordingly another loan was obtained of £25,000 in 1832, and of £45,000 in 1833. In the Twelfth Report of the Commissioners of Public Works, the amount advanced by them for the improvement of the port and harbour of the City of Limerick, was £125,384 12s. 4d., of which £2,500 had been repaid in 1832, and the interest due thereon was £30,672 5s.: total £153,556 17s. 4d. That towards the erection of Athlunkard Bridge they had granted a separate loan of £15,889 19s. 11d., which with interest £5808 15s. 1d., amounted to £21,698 15s. More recently Mr. R. Griffith, Chairman of the Board, in a communication to the Transatlantic Packet Station Commissioners, under date of the 4th March, 1851, states the amount of the loan to be £175,384, including a grant of £50,000 since 1836, of which sum £147,984 was expended. There had been repaid of the principal £5,722 13s. 7d., and interest £45,179, leaving £172,161 18s. 9d. then due, and an available fund of £27,450. The Wellesley Dock was therefore confined to the still water, in the small space or basin adjoining Wellesley Bridge, which was originally intended for the Dock, under the Act 4th George IV., c. 94. But the new floating Dock at Limerick, which was opened by the Earl of St. Germans, in 1853, has an area of $8\frac{1}{4}$ acres: the entrance is seventy feet in width, the gates of plate iron, on the Cassoon principle, its dimensions from east to west 820 feet, north to south 640 feet, surrounded by a wharfage seventy feet in width; the depth of water over the sill is at low water spring tides eight feet three inches; neaps four feet ten inches, high water spring tides twenty-two feet six inches, neaps eighteen feet six inches; the depth of water in

the dock is twenty feet. During the influence of spring tides, the gates remain open nearly five hours, and of neaps two hours; the estimated cost is £50,000. Previous to the construction of these works there were a patent slip and dock-yard, and wharfage nearly a mile in length, but vessels drawing more than three or four feet could not approach it at low water. In the pool, about 100 perches from the quays, a single vessel drawing eleven or twelve feet could lie afloat at low water. The rise of the tide in the river-way here is immense, being on an average nineteen feet at high water spring tides, and fourteen feet at neaps. The expenditure of the money granted for the improvement of the Shannon has been productive of some beneficial results, 32,500 acres of waste land having been drained, which the government restored to the respective proprietors without making any charge for its reclamation. Several piers have been erected in the Lower Shannon, such as that described at Foynes, and those useful and substantial bridges on the Upper about Athlone and Banagher. In 1838 there were seven steamers navigating the Upper, Middle, and Lower Shannon, and fifty barges of fifty tons each trading with Dublin, by means of the Grand Canal, which, as already shown, unites itself with this river, and thus renders the water communication between the Atlantic and the Irish Sea for all purposes of internal navigation complete; the number of steamers have been since increased to thirteen. These are principally employed on the Upper Shannon, but some of them ply daily between Limerick and Foynes in the summer, and three times a week in the winter season. Notwithstanding the increase in the number of steamers, the trade on the river decreased between the years 1840 and 1844. In the former year the total receipts of tolls and wharfage at the various stations along the river amounted to £1,849 9s. 2½d.; and for the latter year they were only £1,564 7s. 7d.: being a diminution of £285 1s. 7½d. The quantity of goods to and from the Shannon, conveyed by the Grand and Royal Canals, was in 1840, 30,987½ tons; and in 1844, 25,752¾ tons: decrease 5,234½ tons. The total number of passengers by steam boats on the river was in 1840, 18,544; and in 1844 there were only 16,113: decrease 2,431. A modern writer of great ability, in a recent work on Ireland, con-

tends, that "to render the Shannon navigable throughout is impracticable," and he instances the fifteen miles of river between Limerick and Killaloe, which he describes as "narrow, shallow, and precipitate, with a fall of ninety-seven feet, its bottom being a solid rock, presenting such difficulties that no engineer has been yet found bold enough to bore through, or excavate it." The navigation of the river, however, from Lough Allen to Killaloe is complete for steamers, and from thence to Limerick by a canal, which answers every purpose of inland navigation. He also insists that the natural course of the Shannon running from north to south, with a curve to the west before it joins the sea, is opposed to its commercial prosperity, and he contrasts the great advantages that those ports on the east coast have over it from their proximity to England; but a new era is approaching, and a more extensive and profitable trade than even that with England is certain to crown the commercial efforts and enterprise which it is to be hoped will soon animate the western ports. Circumstances which he considers most disadvantageous to the Shannon, are those that will prove most beneficial. Its admirable position for trade with the new world, and a great portion of the old, is indisputable; and even that with Great Britain will undergo a considerable change for the better, as it will hereafter be carried on by means of railway communication, except for agricultural and other bulky commodities: there are railways already formed from Limerick direct, or radiating to Dublin, Waterford, and Cork. Convenient to the Shannon's source, in the county Leitrim, are situated the Arigna Coal Mines, which extend over an immense district: the strata in the principal bed that has been yet discovered is three feet in thickness, and is sufficient to supply an extensive consumption for 500 years. This coal is of a very bituminous character, and produces much coke. It is well adapted to all the purposes of steam; is very superior for smelting iron: and in close connexion with it are the Arigna Iron Mines, at one time partially worked by a company, but who, for want of capital or capacity, have long since abandoned them. The ore, however, is of the richest description, and, as well as the coal, abounds in this neighbourhood, and even comprises an immense mountain, which in the expressive language of the country is called *Slieve-en-*

iron, or the iron mountain. This is an ore of all others comparatively scarce throughout the wide extent of the United States, which import large quantities of iron from Sweden, Russia, and Wales, and when the trade that should naturally exist between them and Ireland falls into its regular channel, these mines, which are so admirably situated for exporting their produce, having a water communication to the Atlantic, will no doubt be worked, and the States will find it their interest to draw their principal supplies of that metal from thence. Independent of the Arigna Mines, Anthracite coal is raised in the county Tipperary—one of those counties bordering on the Shannon—which is now brought by railway to Limerick, and found very superior for smelting and similar purposes. Coal is also found in various districts on both sides of the estuary from Limerick to the sea, but peat is so cheap, that on the north side of the Lower Shannon particularly, where there is one of the largest coal fields in the kingdom, explorations have not been proceeded with to any extent to ascertain its real value. The whole course of the river abounds with mineral substances, such as copper, lead, sulphur, alum, and even silver has been partially discovered. The land is of proverbial fertility, and well adapted to agricultural and pastoral purposes, and its capabilities for manufactures are immense. Near Limerick there is a water power in constant action, equal to that of 38,667 horses, or 773 engines, each of fifty-horse power: it connects itself directly, or by means of junction canals, with fifty cities and towns, containing a population considerably over half a million, while that of eleven counties through which it passes, amounted in 1841 to nearly two millions and a half, the annual value of the land to £3,320,610, and the live stock thereon to £7,386,660. There are quays and landing piers in the Lower Shannon, between Limerick and the Atlantic, at Askeaton, Clare, Foynes, Kildysart, Kiltury, Tarbert, Ballylongford, Kilrush, and Querin; and safe and commodious roadsteads at Carrigaholt, Scattery, Tarbert, Labasheeda, Foynes, and Grass Island. The most considerable of the rivers that pour their tributary waters into the Shannon is the Fergus, which has its source in the Barony of Corcomroe, and running through Lake Inchiquin and three others, waters the town of Ennis, where it is joined by the Clareen, and

flowing by the town of Clare, it forms a splendid estuary, studded with picturesque islands, mingling its waters with the Shannon, about twelve miles from that town, and having water thereto for vessels of 500 tons. With these immense advantages for foreign commerce and internal traffic, unequalled by any other river in the United Kingdom, and holding out such flattering inducements to establish manufactures, it only requires exertion and enterprise on the part of the citizens of Limerick, aided by the inhabitants of those towns in direct communication with that city, and the landed proprietors whose estates lie along the course of the river, to render it a source, not only of great local, but even national prosperity. It is now admitted that it is idle to expect the introduction of English capital into Ireland for either manufacturing or commercial purposes, which would at all interfere with English ascendancy in these branches of industry; these parties must, therefore, rely on their own resources, intelligence, and activity to carry out these objects. There is abundance of sleeping capital in the country, as has been instanced in the Belfast Harbour Improvements, and the purchases made under the Irish Encumbered Estates Act. The various Banks established in the country should also be more liberal in granting financial facilities, which, if judiciously applied to these purposes, would contribute materially towards their own prosperity. When these and other proper demonstrations are made at home, the commercial community of the United States, already so anxious that the western ports of Ireland should take that position for commercial intercourse with them that nature so pre-eminently entitles them to, will cordially assist. These ports may then confidently rely on the co-operation of the States, and the infusion of American capital into the country, which would be a more natural investment than if made by a jealous and competing rival. The immense capabilities of the Shannon will then be called into action, creating new objects of commercial and manufacturing enterprise, giving remunerative employment to thousands, perhaps millions, of the population, and diffusing over its contiguous districts animation, wealth, and abundance, where lately apathy, poverty, and want so appallingly prevailed.

LIMERICK.

LIMERICK, anciently called *Liumneach-na-Luingas*, or Limerick, of the ships or fleets, is situated on the estuary of the river Shannon, 52° 39' N., 8° 32' W., 129 miles W.S.W. of Dublin, 80 miles N.N.W. of Cork, and 77 miles N.W. of Waterford, by railway. It comprises an area of 33,863 acres, of which 2,618 are in the city, and 31,245 in the rural district: the population in 1821 was 59,045; in 1831 it increased to 66,554, but that included both portions. In 1841 and 1851 the population of the city was as follows:—

Years.	HOUSES.				POPULATION.		
	Inhabited.	Uninhab.	Bldg.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Persons.
1841	5,255	596	15	5,866	21,436	26,955	48,391
1851	5,565	905	16	6,486	24,033	29,365	53,448

Being an increase on the ten years of 620 houses, of which, however, 309 were on those uninhabited. On the population there was an increase of 2,647 males and 2,410 females, total 5,057 persons: the females in 1851 exceeding the males by 5,282, or 22 per cent. The corporation is of very ancient date, and the title of mayor was extended to its chief magistrate in the reign of Richard I., ten years before London obtained the distinction. John granted it a charter, extending to the citizens the same freedom and privileges previously conferred on Dublin. Charters were subsequently granted confirming them, by Edward I., Henry IV., Henry V., Henry VI., Henry VII., Edward VI., and in the 17th and 25th years of Elizabeth: the former ordained that a hat and sword of state should be borne before the mayor within the liberties of the city. A subsequent charter, granted by James I. in 1609, constituted the city a distinct county, excepting the Castle, the County Court House, and Prison, and conferred on

it an exclusive admiralty jurisdiction over the Shannon from about three miles N.E. of the city to the sea. The mayor, recorder, and four of the aldermen, were constituted magistrates of the county of the city, and it incorporated a society of the staple with the same powers as Dublin and Waterford. The corporation under this charter was styled the mayor, sheriffs, and citizens of the city of Limerick. By 25th Charles II. the lord lieutenant and privy council were invested with the power of approving or annulling the election of the chief officers of the corporation, who were also required to take the oath of supremacy, and the election of the other officers was taken from the freemen, and vested in the common council; and all new settlers, being protestants, were to be admitted to their freedom. A charter granted by James II. was declared void, and the municipality became unaltered until 1823, when the 4th George IV., c. 126, entitled the Limerick Registration Act, partially remodelled the corporation. The guild of merchants incorporated by James I. having become extinct, was revived by this Act, but the formation of the Chamber of Commerce rendered it unnecessary. Independent of the freemen, the right of voting was also extended to 40s. freeholders. This city, previous to the Legislative Union, returned two members to the Irish Parliament, and from thence to the passing of the Reform Act in 1832, one representative to the United Parliament, when it was raised to its former number. In 1831 the number of electors was estimated at 2,413. The following year the Act of 2nd William IV., c. 88, extended the franchise to £10 householders: in 1834 the number of electors was 2,976; and in 1837 they were 3,186, of which 1,946 were £10 householders, 912 freeholders, 14 rent charges, 34 leaseholders, and 280 freemen. In 1849 the number had decreased of all descriptions to 1,246, and under the Act of 13th and 14th Vic., c. 69, they still further decreased in 1851 to 1,144; and in 1853 they increased to 1,920, of which 1550 were rated occupiers, 163 freemen, and 207 of other qualifications. At the general election of 1851, William F. Russell and Robert Potter, Esquires, the former a resident merchant of the city, and the latter an English solicitor and a Roman Catholic, since deceased, were elected. Mr. Potter, whose death was sincerely regretted by his constituents,

has been succeeded by Mr. Sergeant O'Brien, of the Irish bar, without opposition. The corporation now consists of a mayor, eight aldermen, and thirty-two councillors, elected by the eight wards into which the city is divided, and possessed an income of £8,162 in 1846, £4,556 of which was derived from tolls, £642 from rents, £750 by presentment, and £2,114 from other sources: of this sum there was appropriated in salaries and pensions, £1,695; in lighting, watching, and paving the city, £867; and towards the erection of public works and repairs, £5,485.

Limerick is a very ancient city, and was, no doubt, one of those of which Ptolemy makes mention. In 815 the Danes first appeared on the Shannon, and committed frightful ravages, devastating the country, and plundering and burning the churches, particularly those of Scattery or Inniscathay, noted for the costly monument erected there to St. Senanus, which they destroyed. The Irish met them at Glin, and obliged them to fly to their ships with great slaughter; but year after year they returned in greater force, and although almost invariably defeated, yet, from their having the command of the sea, they were able to land where least expected, and ravage the country before the natives could assemble in sufficient force to repel them. In the midst of these calamities, the elements appear to have contributed to augment the horrors inflicted by these barbarous invaders. The north side of the Shannon was visited by a thunder storm unexampled in history, the lightning destroying upwards of 1,000 persons, while the sea rose in its fury to an unusual height, broke down the river banks, and inundated the country for many miles in every direction. A complication of events so disastrous was looked on by the natives as ominous of future reverses and calamities, which Ireland was destined to endure; and in this they were not mistaken, for, up to the commencement of the present century, no country has had a millennium of greater misery. The Danes, in the ninth and tenth centuries, made themselves masters of several of the islands in the Shannon, and even of Limerick itself. But English and foreign writers are egregiously mistaken, when they attribute the building of Limerick, Cork, and Waterford to them. These cities were places of considerable importance long previous to their appearing in the country,

and Limerick, in particular, was famous for its ships. In the eleventh century, Brian Boromy expelled them from Inniscathay, and other islands in the Shannon, but allowed them to hold Limerick, they paying him a yearly tribute of 360 hogsheads of claret. In 1106 Murtoth, successor to Turlogh O'Brien, transferred the seat of royalty from Cashel to Limerick, where it remained to the time of the Anglo-Norman invasion. In 1153 Turlogh O'Connor besieged the city, and obliged the Danish inhabitants to submit to his authority, but Donald O'Brien was again in possession of it when Henry II. visited the country. In 1175 Raymond le Gros, with the assistance of the King of Ossory, took possession of it, and obtained a great booty; but being called away by the death of Strongbow, it was burned down by Donald O'Brien before Raymond was well out of the suburbs, declaring it should never be again a nest for foreigners. It was rebuilt, however, soon after, and Henry II. assigned it, with the kingdom of Limerick, to Herbert Fitzherbert, who resigned it to Philip de Braosa, and he, aided by Miles Cogan and Robert Fitzstephen, advanced against the city, but the garrison set fire to it, which so dispirited De Braosa that he abandoned the country; and so assured was O'Brien of the security of his metropolis that he built the cathedral church of St. Mary on the site of his palace. The Anglo-Normans, however, in 1195, had again possession of it, and were again compelled to abandon it by Macarthy of Desmond. John renewed the grant to Braosa, with the exception of the city, the cantred of the Ostmen, and the Holy Island, which he placed in the hands of William de Burgh, who built a strong castle and bridge over the Shannon, and English settlers flocked to it in great numbers: amicable arrangements appear to have been then established between them and the natives, as the names of some of the chief magistrates are purely Irish. In 1234 the city was taken, after a siege of four days, by Richard, Earl Marshal, then in rebellion. By the intestine wars of the O'Briens, De Burghs, De Clares, and Fitzgeralds, the prosperity of the city was greatly retarded. In 1308, Piers Gavaston attacked O'Brien in the neighbourhood of Limerick, and forced him to submit. In 1316 Edward Bruce terminated his campaign to the south in this city, where he held a court for several months. Grants were

made by Edward II. for walling round the suburbs, and repairing the castle. In 1331 the Earl of Desmond was committed to the custody of the marshal of Limerick. In 1337 serious commercial disputes arose between the merchants of Limerick and Galway, which, notwithstanding the interference of the Lords Justices, led to open hostilities. In the fifteenth century, the city, which had been previously confined to that portion insulated by the Shannon, and was called the English town, was now extended, so as to include that part on the south bank of the river called the Irish town; the necessary works, commenced in 1450, were not finished until 1495. In the reign of Henry VI., from the disturbed state of the country, large portions of the food of the people were drawn from France. In the reign of Edward IV., Connor O'Brien drove the English from various parts of Munster, and compelled the citizens of Limerick to pay him a tribute of sixty marks annually. In 1467 a mint was established; and in 1484 Gerald, Earl of Kildare, held a parliament here. In 1495 the brotherhood of the guild of merchants was created. In the reign of Henry VII. the city increased in prosperity, but the commercial jealousy between it and Galway still continued, and was only settled by a formal treaty, and the interference of the crown. In 1543 Sir Anthony St. Leger held a parliament in this city. In Mary's reign, O'Brien, Earl of Thomond, and all his retainers, swore fealty to the English crown. During the reign of Elizabeth, and while Desmond's insurrection raged in the province, Limerick adhered to her government, and was made the centre of her civil and military administration: at this period the city is represented to be well built, embracing a circuit of three miles. In 1584 the city militia amounted to 800 men, being twice the number that Cork had then, and one-third more than Waterford. In 1636 it was visited by Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, who presented the corporation with a valuable cup. In 1642 the inhabitants opened their gates to the army of the confederates under General Barry and Lord Muskery, and the royal garrison, consisting of 200 men, was obliged to surrender. The city sent representatives to the convention of the confederates at Kilkenny, and made every exertion to repair and strengthen the fortifications. In 1646 the supreme Council of the Confederates, with Cardinal

Binuncini, established themselves in Limerick to press forward the siege of Bunratty Castle, garrisoned by the parliament. In 1650 the Marquis of Ormond marched into the city in hopes of securing it for Charles II., but he was then the most unpopular man in the kingdom, and the garrison refused to co-operate with him. Cromwell had now returned to England, having perpetrated the most diabolical and sanguinary excesses in Drogheda and Wexford. Warned by their fate, the men of Waterford obliged him to raise the siege of that city; and he was on the point of being discomfited before Clonmel, by the skill and gallantry displayed by Colonel Hugh O'Neill, who, with 1,500 Ulster men, defended it for two months against all his efforts to reduce it, when, in his uttermost extremity, he was reinforced by the army of the west under Broghill, and was thus enabled to press forward the siege with redoubled vigour. O'Neill, whose ammunition was exhausted, showed himself possessed of immense military capacity, and by a stratagem saved the town and his brave followers. After a day of spirited resistance, he secretly and silently in the night withdrew his troops across the Suir, without the enemy being aware of it, and made good his retreat to Limerick. In the morning the inhabitants proposed surrendering the town, and Cromwell, who expected that there was still a resolute garrison within, granted them favourable conditions. He was now succeeded by his son-in-law, Ireton, in the command of the army, who after the reduction of Youghal and Killaloe, laid siege to Limerick. Hugh O'Neill was entrusted with the defence, but although his courage and high military talents were fully equal to the task, he was unable to restrain the violence and intrigues of faction, the ravages of the plague, and the villany and treachery of Colonel Fennel, who had betrayed his party on two previous occasions. He now alarmed the citizens and corrupted a considerable portion of the garrison, and having seized the keys and overpowered O'Neill's guard, he admitted Ireton's soldiers. This service, however, did not save his life, and he was executed, as all traitors should be. The mayor, Friar Walsh, Ormond's bitterest opponent, and the catholic Bishop of Emly, whose honesty of purpose deserved a better fate, suffered with

him. The gallant Hugh O'Neill was in the condemned category. On his trial he asserted that he had always acted the part of an honourable enemy, and that no unjust decree or punishment could tarnish his reputation. Ireton pressed to have the sentence of execution carried into effect ; but his life was spared by Ludlow, apprehensive, no doubt, of the odium that would be attached to such an act, particularly on the continent, where O'Neill had served with distinction. For five years after this surrender the city was subject to military government. In 1653 an Act was passed permitting English adventurers, both civil and military, to purchase the forfeited houses in the city. In 1656 the municipal government was restored by the election of a mayor and twelve English aldermen. The governor, Sir Ralph Wilson, was succeeded by the Earl of Orrery, who was instructed to encourage the settlement of English and Dutch merchants in the city. In 1672 it had so far recovered from its late depression that the inward tolls amounted to £300. The Duke of Ormond, once so unpopular here, was now received with the greatest splendour. After the battle of the Boyne, and James had retired to France, the Duke of Tyrconnell held his viceregal court in this city. William, who had successively reduced Wexford, Waterford, and Clonmel, now invested Limerick with an army of 20,000 veterans. The garrison consisted of some choice troops and experienced officers, among whom were Generals Boileau, Sarsfield, and the Duke of Berwick. The besiegers' heavy artillery, in which there were some eighteen pounders, with a magazine of powder and other munitions of war, had been despatched from Dublin under a considerable escort of cavalry, commanded by Colonel Villars, and had reached its last stage at Ballymedy, within eight miles of the English camp. Sarsfield, who had been informed of its departure, determined on intercepting it on the road ; and taking with him 500 horse he surprised the escort, which was overpowered, and the magazine, battering train, and other supplies blown up ; a detachment of cavalry, sent by William the better to secure its safe conveyance to the camp, arriving in time to witness the explosion. William, however, persevered in the siege, and a breach being effected, the besiegers penetrated into the town, where they were

received at the point of the bayonet, and driven back with the loss of 1,700 men; the women of Limerick, participating in their destruction by hurling stones and other missiles from the walls on the assailants. This repulse obliged William to raise the siege and retreat to Clonmel; and the day after he took shipping at Waterford for England. The garrison, during the winter of 1690, received reinforcements from France under St. Ruth, an experienced general, but of the old school, and possessed of consummate vanity and self-reliance in his military prowess. In his person the French monarch made a fatal present to Ireland, the command of the allied troops being entrusted to him. Both armies took the field the ensuing spring; and the English, under General De Ginkle, laid siege to Athlone. St. Ruth deemed the place impregnable, and though frequently urged by Sarsfield to succour it he obstinately refused. The consequence was that the English took it by assault; and this led to the battle of Aughrim, in which both armies were engaged. Never did the Irish distinguish themselves more than on this occasion; and while victory thrice trembled in the balance, it was ultimately snatched from them by the fall of their commander, who was killed by a cannon ball. The army now retreated under Sarsfield to Limerick, which De Ginkle, after the surrender of Galway, invested, on the 25th August, with his whole force. The garrison was strong and resolute, and furnished with every material calculated to prolong the siege. There was also a considerable body of cavalry on the Clare side of the Shannon ready to co-operate with it. The French General D'Ussone, with the greater part of the Galway garrison, had also joined it, and it was expected that the besiegers would not be able to reduce it before the winter, when they would be obliged a second time to raise the siege. Ginkle, who had taken better care of his heavy artillery than William, completed, on the 8th September, a battery of twenty-two pieces of heavy ordnance, which made a breach in the English town, and destroyed the works and stores of the besieged deposited there. On the 22nd the fort that commanded Thomond bridge was attacked by fourteen pieces of cannon and a considerable body of cavalry and infantry, which was obstinately defended by the detachment placed there, but they

were dislodged and obliged to retreat towards the inner town; and the English pursuing them in great force, the gates were closed against friends and foes, and the slaughter was indiscriminate, the Irish losing 600, and the English 400 men. The siege had now lasted forty-eight days, and the besieged, who had been expecting supplies from France, began to despair of their arrival. They therefore demanded a truce for three days, that they might communicate with their cavalry on the Clare side of the river as to the terms of surrender. On the 25th Colonel Sheldon visited the English camp, and the following day Sarsfield and Waghop dined with De Ginkle, terms were submitted, and hostages exchanged towards the honourable intentions of the parties engaged in the capitulation. During its progress news arrived that the French fleet, consisting of twenty-five ships of war, and as many transports, had arrived at the mouth of the Shannon, having on board a considerable reinforcement in men, and supplies of arms, ammunition, provisions, and other military stores. D'Ussone entreated Sarsfield and the other Irish commanders to break off the negotiations with De Ginkle, and the Lord Justices who were now in the English camp; but although the treaty was not then signed, they considered themselves too much bound in honour to withdraw from conditions that only required ratification. Sarsfield, and the Irish officers who acted with him on this occasion, although unquestionably brave soldiers, were but indifferent diplomatists, and even with the legal assistance of Sir Toby Butler, the articles of the treaty were not so strong, or so well defined, as to preclude their insidious adversaries from misinterpreting their literal meaning. Had they paused, with such aid at hand, or had Tyrcennell, who died during the progress of the siege of disappointed hopes and a broken spirit, been one of the contracting parties, better terms would have been obtained, and in language so plain that it would admit of no equivocation. This famous but much abused treaty, which guaranteed the civil and religious rights of the Irish Catholics, such as they were in the reign of Charles II., was signed, it is said, on the 3rd October, on a large stone near Thomond bridge, in sight of both armies. On the 4th October, Talmaah, with a portion of the besieging force, took possession of the English town,

and the Irish army was drawn up the following day on King's Island, to make a selection of England or France for future service : De Ginkle and Sarsfield addressed it—the former in favour of William, the latter of Louis. It was then agreed that the army should be marched past a flag fixed at a given point, and those soldiers who were for England should file to the left, and those who preferred France were to march on. The army assembled at an early hour on the following morning, and the chaplains (for there were then chaplains in the army) having celebrated mass at the head of each regiment, the Lords Justices, De Ginkle and his staff, soon after arrived, and were received by the Irish army, 15,000 strong, with presented arms. The general looked on with admiration, and declared publicly that he never saw a finer body of men ; the army was then formed in columns, and ordered to march forward ; the walls of the town were crowded with citizens, and the surrounding hills with the peasantry, but the deepest silence prevailed ; the battalions headed by the Irish guards, 1,400 strong, advanced and marched past the flag ; seven men only turned to the left to join the English ranks. The next two regiments were Ulster Irish, and they all filed to the left ; but the greater portion that followed declared for France : the cavalry and other detached forces acted similarly—and out of the whole De Ginkle only obtained 1,000 horse and 1,600 infantry ; and so little pleased were the English authorities with the result, that they would, in all probability, have broken through the treaty, if the appearance of the French fleet had not restrained them. This, however, decided the fate of Ireland : 19,000 men, the flower of the Irish nation, embarked on board the French fleet, and formed the Irish brigade in the French service, afterwards so distinguished in the Continental wars of Europe.

Limerick signalized itself by the brave and resolute defence it made on both these occasions, attacked as it had been by numerous and well-disciplined armies, previously flushed with success ; and had the honour, in which the fine women of Limerick participated, of compelling that led by William in person to retreat from before its walls. It has been properly called the city of the violated treaty, which contained thirteen articles : five of them, however, had reference only to the Catholics of five counties, but the first and ninth

provided for the civil and religious liberties of the general body of Irish Catholics. The first article conditioned that "they should enjoy such privileges in the exercise of their rights as are consistent with the laws of Ireland, or as they enjoyed in the reign of Charles II., and that their Majesties, as soon as their affairs would permit the assembling of a parliament in Ireland, would endeavour to procure the Roman Catholics such further security as would preserve them from any disturbance on account of their religion." The ninth article conditioned, "That the only oath to be administered to such Roman Catholics as submitted to their Majesties' government, should be the oath of allegiance, made by an Act of the English parliament in the first year of their Majesties' reign, and as required by the second article of the treaty." The Lords Justices, and the commander-in-chief of William's army, signed these conditions, which were ratified by the monarch himself, and the great seal of England affixed thereto. William, instead of calling a parliament to obtain from it the ratification of the treaty, or of "further securing the Catholics in their religious rights," dissolved the first parliament that met in 1692, after its sitting eleven months, without even hinting at its fulfilment. He did not summon another until 1695, and he then, instead of redeeming his own and the plighted faith of the English nation to the Irish Catholics, guaranteed by a solemn treaty, instructed his deputy to tell the parliament, that he was intent on the great work of making Ireland exclusively a protestant country; and the parliament, in accordance with his views, enacted a number of penal laws against the Catholics. In 1697 the King and the parliament hypocritically determined to legislate on the treaty which had been broken almost as soon as it was sealed; and to add insult and mockery to the wrongs they meditated, they proceeded to pass an Act for the confirmation of articles (not the articles) made at the siege of Limerick, or so much of them as were consistent with William's own welfare, or the security of the kingdom. The whole Act, however, tends to convict the parliament, and the monarch himself, of the most profound duplicity and monstrous injustice, for the first article which granted to the Catholics the free exercise of their religion is altogether omitted, and, instead of confirming the articles, left the

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Catholics in a worse position than they were in before ; and this parliament actually passed an Act, 9th William III., c. 1, " which banished Catholic priests, and prohibited protestants from intermarrying with papists." From this period to the twenty-ninth year of the reign of George II. no less than twenty-four penal statutes were enacted against the Irish Catholics ; and a code more savage and exterminating than Draco's was rigidly enforced against them, in violation of the treaty of Limerick, which guaranteed that their religion should be tolerated, and their civil rights protected. The late Lord Congleton, in his History of the Penal Laws, thus contrasts the conditions of Limerick with some of the grievous laws that were subsequently inflicted on the Irish Catholics. " By the treaty of Limerick the free exercise of their religion was guaranteed to them ; by the penal laws their chapels were shut up, and the priests banished or hanged if they returned—and one of the Acts provided a more diabolical species of punishment, if caught in Ireland. By the treaty of Limerick the noblemen and gentlemen of that persuasion were allowed the privilege of wearing arms, and the whole body were equally entitled to it, because, when executed, no law to the contrary existed in the country, or could be contemplated ; by the penal laws no Catholic was permitted the use of arms. By the treaty of Limerick Catholics might intermarry with Protestants ; by the penal laws they were prohibited. By the treaty of Limerick the profession of the law was open to them ; by the penal laws it was taken from them. By the treaty of Limerick they could purchase, sell, bequeath, and inherit landed property ; by the penal laws they could neither purchase, sell, bequeath, or inherit landed property, take annuities for lives secured on lands, nor a lease longer than thirty-one years, nor could they lend money on mortgage, or vest it in the public securities. By the treaty of Limerick they were left in the enjoyment of every political franchise, unless the holding of offices under government, and being members of corporations ; by the penal laws they could not serve on grand juries, vote at vestries, act as sheriffs, under-sheriffs, magistrates, or constables, vote at elections, or sit in parliament. By the treaty of Limerick they were protected from taking any other oath than that of allegiance (1st of William and Mary) ; by

the penal laws they were required to take the oaths of abjuration and supremacy, and to subscribe to declarations against the principal tenets of their faith. By the treaty of Limerick they were acknowledged as free subjects of a British King ; by the penal laws they were placed in the double capacity of slaves and enemies to their protestant countrymen." These were a few of the grievances under which the Catholics laboured ; but there were others even more oppressive and personally degrading. One of these obnoxious Acts prohibited Catholics from residing in that city which witnessed the signing of the treaty, except labourers and fishermen, without whose services the protestants could scarcely exist ; and even these were obliged to inhabit houses at yearly rents not exceeding forty shillings. After the embarkation of the Irish troops for France, and while the new garrison was employed in repairing the fortifications, a tower on the quay, which contained 250 barrels of gunpowder, suddenly fell, and the powder exploding, killed and maimed 240 persons, some of the former by stones at a mile distance from the scene of devastation. In 1703 restrictive laws were passed for the expulsion of the Catholics from the city ; and in 1745 they were again persecuted by oppressive and vexatious exactions. In 1760 Limerick, which from the time of the siege had been maintained as a military garrison, was now declared no longer a fortress, and the walls and other defences were removed by degrees. When the volunteers of Ireland armed themselves in defence of their country, and for the restoration of their rights, three corps were formed in this city : the Limerick Union, the Loyal Limerick, and the Limerick Volunteers. In 1798 Limerick was scarcely affected by the agitation that reigned almost in every other quarter. In 1803 the military commander of the garrison took extraordinary precautions against an imaginary conspiracy to seize the city. In 1821 the city and county were placed under the Insurrection Act, but the only contests that have taken place here since the siege, have been at elections, which were sometimes warm enough. In 1836 the extensive provision and corn premises of Messrs. Russell and Sons were consumed by fire, which took place in the night and was awfully grand, and the firm sustained a serious loss by the event.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—Considerable efforts have been made from time to time, and particularly by the Chamber of Commerce, to establish the linen and cotton trade in Limerick; and also by the Agricultural Association Commissioners, who subscribed for the same purpose, and who had the management of £7,000 allocated by the Board of Directors in London, towards promoting manufacturing industry among the Irish poor. A Linen Hall was erected, and markets held on Fridays and Saturdays to accommodate the weavers; and premiums distributed to encourage them to manufacture an article best suited to these markets. But although the trade took root to some extent for more than a century in parts of the county—for instance, at Glin, where linen and cotton checks were manufactured, and bleach greens established at Castle Connel, Newcastle, and Lingland—it made but little progress in the city, and has also declined in the county, the manufactures being confined to coarse linens, freize, and flannel. The Limerick glove, once so celebrated, is now no longer in request, and the trade has declined considerably. A manufacture was established in 1829 at Mount Kennett, of tambour lace, and Irish blonde, which gave employment to 400 females, and has been since brought to great perfection by Messrs. Walker, Lloyd, &c.: and there are probably 5,000 females employed in this manufacture, and in embroidering muslin. There is also a factory in Abbey Street, in which a number of boys are employed in weaving muslin. Messrs. Stein, Brown, and Co.'s distillery, at Thomond-gate, has been established for half a century—it was discontinued, however, during the years 1843 and 1844, but resumed working in 1845, and still continues to distil whiskey to a very considerable extent. There are seven breweries, three foundries, one of these on an extensive scale, established by Messrs. J. N. Russell and Sons, three tan-yards, three ropewalks, four soap, two tobacco, one comb, two hat, and one fishing-hook manufactories, salt works, &c. In the city and neighbourhood there are twenty mills employed in manufacturing flour, oat and Indian corn meal; and in the liberties two paper mills. There are also several extensive provision stores, where large quantities of beef, pork, bacon, and lard are cured for export, and hams, which are considered fully equal, if not superior, to those cured in Yorkshire. But

there is neither flax nor cotton spinning, notwithstanding the immense capabilities afforded by the Shannon for such manufactures. The Commerce of Limerick, which of old was so flourishing, must have declined considerably after the Anglo-Norman invasion, if the Customs' duties of the port are to be taken as a criterion. In 1277 they were only £6 18s., in 1337 they produced eight marks, or £5 6s. 8d., in 1495 £9 0s. 10d., in 1537 £9 8s. 4d.; and when James I. ordered returns of the customs of all the Irish ports, those of Limerick were only £15 14s. 8d., while at Waterford they were stated at £954 18s. 2d., and at Cork £255 11s. 7d.; but in 1633, a few years after, they increased to £1,619 1s. 7½d., and in 1672 to £1,906 19s. 8d. The Customs' duties, however, were by no means general up to this period, and Limerick may have been a free port for many of its imports and exports. During the last century its trade has materially increased. For the year 1835 the exports consisted of 1,364 tierces of beef, 14,263 tierces and barrels of pork, 81,839 cwts. of bacon, 9,697 cwts. of lard, 72,630 firkins of butter, 117,847 barrels of wheat, 32,847 barrels of barley, 285,623 barrels of oats, 22,725 cwts. of flour, 16,320 cwts. of oatmeal, 26,214 crates of eggs, and hams, tongues, porter, ale, flax, linen, wool, feathers, salmon, &c. The Irish Railway Commissioners estimated their value, exclusive of Tralee, at £802,000, and the imports the same year at £328,500, which consisted of timber, deals, wine, tallow, hemp, tar, pitch, staves, and flax seed from Foreign ports, and tea, sugar, coffee, coals, iron, hoops, bark, salt, and British manufactured articles from Great Britain. The tonnage of the shipping that entered inwards from Foreign ports was 12,408, and from Great Britain and Coastways 53,078 tons; and there cleared out for Foreign ports 7,980 tons, and for Great Britain and Coastways 62,349 tons. The Customs' duties for the year ending 5th January, 1836, was £142,843, and in 1842 the exports were valued at £1,200,000. The duty on tobacco entered for consumption in 1849 amounted to £107,038. The trade of the port since 1840 will be best shown by the following Tables:—

LIMERICK AND TRALEE.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of these Ports, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending with the five preceding years.

Year ending 5th January	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Shipping.	Customs Duties Collected	
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.							
	British.		Foreign.			Total.		British.		Foreign.			Total.		British.		Foreign.			Total.			
	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.			Tonn.
	Total Inwards.					Total Outwards.					Total Inwards.					Total Outwards.							
1841..	69	15820	3	237	72	16057	613	67020	685	83077	49	13103	49	13103	581	63619	630	76722	115	13938	169399
1842..	58	13927	3	437	61	13664	641	63071	702	76735	41	11769	2	371	43	12140	617	69471	660	81611	114	13800	170411
1843..	54	13740	3	336	57	14076	600	58492	637	72568	43	12079	43	12079	603	67144	646	79223	116	14742	157761
1844..	58	13448	3	454	61	13902	538	55200	599	69102	37	13085	2	319	39	13404	683	75897	722	89301	109	13636	155335
1845..	63	14549	1	232	64	14781	532	51022	596	65803	40	11175	1	232	41	11407	725	74556	766	85963	108	14086	177294
	302	70784	13	1696	315	72480	2924	294805	3239	367285	210	61211	5	923	215	62133	3209	350687	3424	412820	562	70202	830130
1846..	88	19514	88	19514	651	65141	739	84655	43	11637	43	11637	796	85605	839	97242	116	15161	193497
1847..	147	30130	19	4590	166	34720	819	81274	985	115994	95	24013	12	3763	107	26776	784	78307	891	105083	121	14315	219500
1848..	330	60232	128	28584	458	88816	919	90052	1377	178868	319	62423	112	28114	431	90537	636	58354	1067	148991	117	15171	192708
1849..	209	40401	63	14585	273	54986	775	72132	1047	127118	108	26560	51	11917	159	38477	747	70783	966	109260	115	14648	203614
1850..	275	51935	115	23787	390	75772	629	58117	1019	133889	163	38293	118	24682	281	62975	532	51111	813	91314	115	14907	198396
1846 to '50	1049	202262	325	71546	1374	273308	8793	366716	16167	640584	728	162926	293	67476	1021	230402	3495	344160	4516	574562	584	74202	996715
1841 to '50	302	70784	13	1696	315	72480	2924	294805	3239	367285	210	61211	5	923	215	62133	3209	350687	3424	412820	562	70202	830130
1841 to '50	1351	273046	338	73243	1689	346298	6717	661521	8406	1007809	938	224137	298	68398	1236	292635	6704	694847	7940	987382	1146	144404	1826845
Incr...	747	131478	312	69850	1059	201928	869	71911	1928	273239	518	101715	288	66554	806	168269	286	6527	1092	161742	22	4000	166585

These Tables show, that during the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered these ports from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 346,298 tons, of which 73,242 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 661,021 tons: total Inwards 1,007,809 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 292,535 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 68,398 tons were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastways 694,847 tons: total Outwards 987,382 tons. There were registered belonging to these ports 1,146 vessels of 144,404 tons, and the Customs' duties collected therein was £1,826,845. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade of 201,328 tons, of which 69,850 tons were Foreign Shipping; and on that with Great Britain and Coastways 71,911 tons: total increase Inwards 273,239 tons. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 168,268 tons; and on that with Great Britain and Coastways 101,743 tons. There appears to be an increase of 4,000 tons in the registered shipping on the Foreign trade, and an increase of 1,000 tons in the registered shipping on that with Great Britain and Coastways. The total tonnage cleared out for Foreign ports was 101,743 tons. There appears to be an increase of 1,000 tons in the registered shipping on the Foreign trade, and an increase of 1,000 tons in the registered shipping on that with Great Britain and Coastways.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port (exclusive of Tralee), the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows :—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.				OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tons.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Trade. Tons.	British Foreign Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Tons.		Foreign Trade. Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Tons.	Foreign Tons.		
1851 ..	32,923	14,255	33,383	..	23,624	14,674	35,732	..	12,291 160,179
1852 ..	38,719	33,812	43,433	..	27,452	24,436	46,569	..	13,521 159,431
1853 ..	32,688	20,727	48,591	..	22,685	16,900	59,148	..	13,203 155,088
1854 ..	33,862	24,994	51,902	..	19,297	20,162	58,472	..	12,376 162,771

The trade of this port, therefore, for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 85,476 tons Foreign, and 69,115 tons in the British and Coasting trade. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 124,419 tons, and the British and Coasting 90,002 tons ; being an increase on the former of 38,943 tons, and on the latter 20,887 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 93,000 tons, being a decrease on the year of 31,419 tons ; the British and Coasting trade was 107,739 tons, being an increase of 17,737 tons. In 1854 the Foreign trade was 98,315 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 110,374 tons ; being an increase on the former of 5,315 tons, and on the latter of 2,635 tons. The registered shipping, which consisted of 101 vessels of 12,291 tons in 1851, had decreased 1 vessel, but increased in tonnage 85 tons, and there was also an increase in the Customs' duties of £2,592. In the registered tonnage of January, 1854, is included the iron screw steamer *European*, owner Mr. J. Russell ; her net tonnage is 300 tons, and with her engine rooms measures 444 tons : she was then employed in the London trade. The number it appears has been increased since then to six large sea-going screw steamers, 3,963 tons, builder's measurement, including the *European*, all of which are now the property of the "London and Limerick Steam Ship Company." Although there were thirteen steamers in 1851, navigating the Upper and Lower Shannon, if registered they have not been inserted in a parliamentary paper (141,) ordered to be printed by the House of Commons 29th March last, and purporting to be "A return of the whole of the registered Steam Vessels of the United Kingdom, on the 1st January, 1854."

CITY AND HARBOUR IMPROVEMENTS.—The City is built on King's Island, and on both sides of the Shannon, over which there are six bridges, uniting the English and Irish towns with Newtown Pery : the latter portion may vie with any town or city in the kingdom for the uniformity and elegance of its buildings. Wellesley bridge, a splendid modern structure, crosses the harbour : it is said to have cost £80,000, but if so, the tolls only pay interest at the rate of 15s. per cent. per annum. The city is well-lit with gas, under a Local Act, and since 1834 has been supplied with water conveyed by pipes from tanks near Cromwell's Fort. The Harbour is under the control of commissioners, appointed by the Acts 4th George IV., c. 94 ; the 4th and 5th William IV., c. 84 ; and 10th and 11th Vic., c. 194. Under the head of the river Shannon will be found the particulars of the magnificent floating dock constructed here. In 1765 the Irish parliament granted £2,500 towards building the quays of Limerick, but more recently they have been much improved, as well as the harbour. These improvements, however, are incomplete, until the Channel between Grass Island and Limerick is deepened, and the obstructions already described removed. The dredging vessel provided by the Commissioners of Public Works is quite unsuited to the purpose, and one of much greater power should be substituted without further delay. The trade of the port is in a healthy state, and there is every appearance of its increasing. The Harbour Revenue for the year ending 4th May, 1854, derived from tonnage dues of 7d. per ton on vessels from British or Irish ports, 8d. per ton from Foreign ports, and in addition, 5d. and 7d. per ton respectively on vessels entering the Docks, dues on river craft and in lieu of quayage, was £8,079 19s. 1d. ; Bridge tolls £600 ; houses and other premises £213 7s. 7d. : total £8,893 6s. 8d., being an increase since 1850 of £271. The expenditure was, for rent of premises £106 7s. ; interest on loans paid the Commissioners of Public Works £6,500 ; Sir Thomas Deane £186 4s. 1d. ; trustees of Lord Gort for fees abolished £500 ; salaries of officers and wages £941 5s. 2d. ; casual expenses £882 6s. 2d. : total £9,116 2s. 5d. The expenditure consequently exceeded the receipts by £222 15s. 9d., which being deducted from £2,401 1s. 8d., surplus revenue in the hands of the Commis-

sioners of Public Works, 4th December, 1853, now leaves a reserve fund of £2,178 5s. 11d. towards the liquidation of their loan.

PUBLIC BUILDINGS.—*The Commercial Buildings*, which were erected in 1806, cost £8,000, raised by shares of £100 each : they consist of an extensive News Room and Library : a considerable portion is occupied by the Chamber of Commerce, incorporated in 1815 : its funds are derived from fees on the imports and exports of its members, and are employed in promoting the commercial and manufacturing interests of the city. *The Exchange* was built in 1770, and is one of the principal ornaments of the old town, although it only cost £1,500 ; the front is of hewn stone, adorned with seven Tuscan columns, and a handsome balustrade. *The Custom House*, a fine old building, situated at the entrance of the new from the old town : it was erected in 1769 at an expense of £8,000. *The County Court House*, on Merchant's Quay, is a splendid quadrangular building, with a portico supported by four lofty columns, and surrounded by a light iron balustrade : it was erected in 1810, and cost £12,000. *The City Court House*, built in 1763, at a cost of £700. *The City Prison*, an old gloomy building. *The County Gaol* is well situated on the south-east side of the city : it was built in 1821, and cost £25,000 ; it has a fine castellated appearance, the centre tower is sixty feet high, and the building contains twenty-two apartments for debtors, and 103 cells for criminals. *The Assembly House*, built in 1770, at an expense of £4,000. *The Limerick Institution*, George Street, which has a library of 2,000 volumes of select works. *The County Hospital*, founded in 1759, originally by the exertions of Surgeon Vandeleur ; it was completed in 1811, and cost £7,100. *Barrington's Hospital*, founded in 1829, by Sir Joseph Barrington and his four sons ; which cost upwards of £4,000 ; the Board of Public Works, however, appear to have advanced £2,500 of it on loan to the city : it is supported by voluntary subscriptions, and a grant from government ; there is attached to it a medical library, and lying-in hospital. *St. John's Fever and Lock Hospital*, founded in 1781, by Lady Hartstonge ; and in 1836 *The Lying-in Hospital* in Nelson Street by subscription, and a bequest of £1,000 from Mrs.

White. *The House of Industry*, founded in 1774, to accommodate 380 persons, is supported by grand Jury presentments. *The Lunatic Asylum* for the city and counties of Limerick and Clare : the building, independent of the land attached to it, cost £35,490, and admits 347 patients. *The Union Workhouse* was built to accommodate 3,150 inmates, and an auxiliary workhouse for 2,880 more. The Union comprises an area of 177,951 acres in Limerick and Clare, in thirty-four electoral divisions, containing a population of 110,628 persons, represented by forty-four elected, and forty-four *ex-officio* guardians, who meet on Wednesdays. The property valued to the rate in 1852 was £163,572, and the expenditure £20,307. The rate-in-aid levied in 1851 and 1852 was £56,202 15s. 4d., and there was issued in support of the Union £3,070.

The Houses of Religious Worship are—The Cathedral and five Protestant Churches or Chapels of Ease, four Catholic Parochial Churches, and four Conventional Catholic Chapels, two Presbyterian, two Wesleyan Methodist, and one Society of Friends Meeting Houses. The Cathedral was originally founded and endowed by Donald O'Brien, king of Limerick, and was dedicated to St. Mary : in 1200 it was enlarged by Donat O'Brien ; it was partly rebuilt in 1490 by the citizens ; improved by Bishop Adams in the seventeenth century, and carefully renewed after the siege. It is a venerable gothic building, situated in the English town : at the west end is a square tower 120 feet high, containing eight bells, and surmounted by turrets at the angles. The interior is 91 feet in length, by 30 in width, and contains some interesting ancient monuments, among which is one to Donagh the Great, Earl of Thomond. The Church of St. Michael was destroyed during the siege, and a Chapel of Ease was erected subsequently in that parish. There is also an Episcopal Church in connexion with the Female Asylum for the Blind. A handsome modern Church has been recently built in the parish of St. John. The Catholic Cathedral is situated in St. John's parish, which, with St. Michael's, are the Bishop's benefices. It is a large cruciform edifice, built in 1753 ; the painting that adorns the altar is by Callopy, a native artist.

The Catholic Church of St. Michael was erected in 1779 in the fields : it was enlarged in 1805, and is now the largest and finest house of worship in the city. It was in this Church that the first petition for Catholic Emancipation was adopted, and also against the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill. The Church, situated at Thomond's Gate, is a large cruciform building, erected in 1744, and was the first Catholic place of worship permitted in Limerick, after the siege of 1691. The Catholic Church of St. John is a large plain cruciform edifice : there is an altar piece, a good imitation of the Crucifixion, by Michael Angelo. There is also the Church of St. Patrick in the Liberties. The Chapels in the Dominican, Franciscan, and Redemptorist Convents afford great accommodation to the dense Catholic population of Limerick ; also the Augustinian Chapel, which was formerly the Theatre, erected at an expense of £5,000. The Female Convents are—two of the Sisters of Mercy, one Presentation, one of the Good Shepherd, and one of the Faithful Companions of Jesus.

The Educational Institutions are—The School of Design, supported by subscriptions and a parliamentary grant ; the National Schools ; one of these was originally founded by the order of Poor Clares : on their leaving Limerick in 1836 it was placed under Rev. Dr. Hanrahan, P. P. ; it affords instruction to 400 females ; the National Board grants it £40 a year, and it is otherwise supported by charity sermons, &c. The Christian Brothers' Schools, sixteen in number, in six different localities, afford education to 2,000 boys ; a director and twenty-three brothers superintend them ; these are principally supported by subscriptions raised on Saturdays through the city. A Female School, where upwards of 200 females obtain instruction, supported solely by the late Rev. P. Hogan. The Presentation Convent has schools, where twenty of the sisterhood instruct 700 girls. The Sisters of Mercy, in their two establishments, instruct upwards of 1,000 female children, and lodge and support fifty female servants out of place, and fifty orphans are instructed and supported by them. The Sisters' Faithful Companions, &c., eighteen in number have an extensive Day and Boarding School for young ladies, and

those of the Good Shepherd have charge of the Magdalen Asylum, where there are upwards of seventy penitents. The Blue Coat Hospital, founded in 1717, educates fifteen boys. The St. George's Male and Female School, in connexion with the Kildare Street Society, affords instruction to upwards of 200 children. The London Hibernian and Wesleyan Methodists have also schools. The Protestant Diocesan School had sixteen pupils in 1852, one of whom only was taught gratis. There are private schools also, where a number of male and female children are instructed.

There are branches established here of the Bank of Ireland, the Provincial, and National Banks of Ireland. The Savings Bank in 1852 had 2,826 depositors, whose lodgments were £93,037 at £2 17s. per cent. per annum, and there are two Loan Societies, whose joint capital is £3,968.

The amount of Postage, Excise, and Stamps, collected in Limerick for the three years ending 5th January, 1853, was :—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Postage	£3,514	£4,085	£5,414
Excise.....	50,233	55,878	50,676
Stamps, Limerick and Clare ..	9,978	9,202	10,041

Although the Excise of the district has increased since 1851, it has decreased considerably since 1836, when it was £71,616. The number of persons employed in collecting the Customs' revenue of this port in 1849, was 128, whose united salaries amounted to £4,453 18s. 11d. There are four Newspapers published here twice a week: the Limerick Chronicle, the Limerick Reporter and Tipperary Vindicator, the Limerick and Clare Examiner, and the Munster News.

Proceeding from the Shannon, Kerryhead on the south divides it from Ballyhaigue Bay, of which it is the northern boundary. There is no shelter in this Bay, and as it has been mistaken for the Shannon, and has led to fatal consequences, there should be a light placed on Kerryhead, which is in 52° 14' 40" N., 9° 54' W., and, with that on Loophead, would infallibly define the entrance. Tralee Bay is a continuation of Ballyhaigue Bay, at the entrance to which is Fannet Island, and nearer the Channel, leading to Tralee, is the Samphire Islands, where there is deep water and good anchorages.

TRALEE.

TRALEE, formerly called Traleigh, or the strand of the Leigh, the name of the river which passes through the town, and discharges itself in Tralee Bay, is a maritime town, in the county Kerry, $52^{\circ} 16' N.$, $9^{\circ} 35' W.$, $181\frac{1}{2}$ miles W. S. W. of Dublin, and 58 miles W. N. W. of Cork. It comprises an area of 546 acres, and contained in 1831 a population of 9,568 persons. In 1841 the houses were 1,569, and the inhabitants 11,363; in 1851 the houses decreased to 1,485, and the population to 9,957 persons; but there were 5,199 inmates in the Union Workhouse besides; notwithstanding which, the appearance of the town has much improved, and the trade of the port increased rapidly within the last four years. It is a parliamentary borough, and previous to the Union returned two representatives to the Irish and one to the United parliament; although in Lewis's Topographical Dictionary, it is stated to have been then disfranchised, and again vested with power to elect a member to represent the Borough, under the 2nd William IV., c. 88, which, however, only extended the elective franchise to £10 householders. The number of registered electors under this Act in 1834 was 174; in 1849 they were 317. Under 13th and 14th Vic., c. 69, they again decreased to 228, and in 1853 they increased to 315, of which there were 269 rated occupiers, and 46 of other qualifications. The present member is Daniel O'Connell, Esq., who succeeded his brother Maurice, in the representation of the borough. The Corporation, under a charter of James I., was styled the provost, free burgesses, and commonalty of the Borough of Tralee. But if any recently existed they were only of a nominal character, for the municipal power, property, and representation were all engrossed by Sir E. Denny: they are, however, now extinct, and the municipal authority and property vested in twenty-one town

commissioners, under 9th George IV., c. 82 ; this Act was rejected by the inhabitants in 1832, but adopted in 1840. The town is watched, paved, and lighted, by an annual tax levied on the house-holders. The Parliamentary Paper 678, dated 28th June, 1853, is so erroneous in the number stated in respect to this town, as well as others, that it would only lead to confusion to notice it further. The income of the borough arises principally from tolls and rates, which in 1851 amounted to £330, and were applied to public works, and to the payment of town officials. Tralee has no very ancient reminiscences ; a monastery founded in 1213, by John Fitz Thomas, one of the Geraldine family, who, with his son, was slain in the battle of Callan, by Macarthy More, and interred here, first brings it into historical notice. In 1325 Maurice Fitz Thomas, fourth Lord of Kerry, slew with impunity Dermot Macarthy, in the presence of the Judge of Assize. In 1576 the great Earl of Desmond, who had his castle here, and who claimed exemption from the Judges holding Assizes in his territory, was obliged to submit to Sir William Drury, who with arms enforced this prerogative of the Crown. In 1579, Sir Harry Davil was sent by the deputy to summon Desmond to join his forces against the Spaniards, who had landed at Smerwick, and who had been aided in their descent by the Earl's brothers. The Earl hesitated, but his brother John slew Davil on his return to Tralee from his mission. In 1580, however, the Earl himself, having taken up arms against Elizabeth, had his territories laid waste ; and despoiled of all his vast possessions, he wandered a houseless fugitive, aged and forlorn, and fell by the hand of a common soldier, who surprised him in a wood near Tralee, and his head being sent to the Queen, it was impaled on London bridge. That portion of the Desmond estate in which Tralee is situated, was granted to Sir Edward Denny, who encouraged a new colony of English settlers, and in the civil war of 1641 they took possession of the castle, but were obliged to surrender it to the Irish, after defending it for some time, who destroyed it with the town, to prevent Lord Inchiquin quartering his troops in them. They shared a similar fate in 1691, on the approach of William's army. The town lies low, and consists of a main street, a mile in length, with others branching from it ; Denny Street

being the most modern and best built of these. The demesne, once the great Earl of Desmond's, now Sir Edward Denny's, adjoins the town, and affords a delightful promenade to the inhabitants. An Act passed last session, 16th and 17th Vic., c. 194, to construct a railway to connect this town with the Killarney and Mallow Junction. at the former place, will be of incalculable advantage to it.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—There was formerly an extensive brewery by Messrs. Cox, Tidmarsh, and Co., and a large distillery here established by Messrs. Neville and Grant, but it has not been at work since 1835. There are neither flax nor cotton spinning in the town or neighbourhood, and the manufactures are confined to flour, oat and Indian corn meal, soap, tobacco, leather, salt, ropes, &c. The trade of the port, which was insignificant some thirty years ago, has considerably increased. It appears that the ship canal, so long delayed by the Commissioners of Public Works, has been at length completed: it is seventy-four feet in width, and thirteen feet deep, commencing at the Black Rock beyond Blenerville, and extending to the west end of the town, where there is a basin 400 feet long by 150 feet wide, with good wharfage on the north side. Previous to its construction there was only seven or eight feet of water to the town, and vessels drawing more than fifteen feet are still obliged to lighten or discharge at Samphire Islands, within six miles of it, where there is a lighthouse now erecting on the lesser island, which was much required in Tralee Bay. Its exports consist of grain, flour, meal, butter, marble, &c.; its imports foreign were confined to timber and deals, and latterly Indian corn; and from Great Britain, tea, coffee, sugar, iron, coals, bark, and British manufactured articles. The Irish Railway Commissioners estimated its exports for 1835 at £42,315, and its imports at £7,270; but both have increased considerably since then, as the following statement shows.

The trade of this improving port up to 1846, and the customs' duties collected in it to 1850, have been included in the official returns with Limerick, and so mixed up that it was impossible to

give a separate account of them previous to 1851. The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of it, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows:—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.		Brit. and Coasting Tons.	OUTWARDS.		Brit. and Coasting Tons.	Registered Shipping Tons.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Trade. British Tons.	Foreign Trade. Foreign Tons.		Foreign Trade. British Tons.	Foreign Trade. Foreign Tons.			
1851 ..	3,807	1,032	10,038 ..	1,253	461	6,202 ..	1,147	1,531
1852 ..	4,877	2,483	14,718 ..	7,912	706	8,204 ..	960	3,582
1853 ..	5,258	2,945	15,648 ..	5,034	1,919	13,818 ..	1,013	4,318
1854 ..	3,289	3,342	17,968 ..	6,074	2,582	13,546 ..	1,035	9,566

The trade of this port, therefore, for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 6,553 tons foreign, and 16,240 tons in the British and coasting trade. In 1852 the foreign tonnage was 17,978 tons, and the British and coasting trade 22,222 tons; being an increase on the former of 11,425 tons, and on the latter of 6,682 tons. In 1853 the foreign trade was 15,156 tons, and the British and coasting trade 22,466 tons; being a decrease on the former of 2,822 tons, and an increase on the latter of 6,544 tons. In 1854 the foreign trade was 15,287 tons, and the British and coasting 31,514 tons; being an increase on the former of 131 tons, and on the latter of 2,048 tons. On the registered shipping, although there was an increase of three vessels over 1851, there was a decrease in the tonnage of 112 tons. The customs' duties increased from £1,531 in 1851, to £9,566 in 1854, giving unmistakeable proof of its progressing in commercial prosperity. The number of persons employed in collecting the customs' revenue of this port in 1849 was thirty-eight, whose joint salaries amounted to £612 12s. 6d.

Public Buildings, &c., are—The County Court House, a handsome edifice, with a Grecian portico and pediment, cost £14,000. The County Gaol, an extensive building, having accommodation for 209 prisoners. The Chamber of Commerce, the County Club House, the County Infirmary, the Corn Exchange, regulated by the incorporated Merchants' Society. The Military Barracks at Rathmullin, a short distance from the town, has accommodation for seventeen officers, and 456 privates, and an Hospital for thirty men—

they were erected in 1814, and cost £20,000. The Union Work-house, built to accommodate 2,000 persons, was opened in 1842: the Union contains an area of 221,847 acres, and a population of 58,545 persons, in thirty-nine electoral divisions, represented by forty-one elected, and twenty-one *ex officio* guardians: the property rated to the poor in 1852 was £80,526; the total expenditure £13,361 14s. 2d. The rate-in-aid levied in this Union in 1851 and 1852, was £859 2s. 3d., and the amount issued £725. The Protestant Church is of ancient date, but was repaired and enlarged in 1819, by a loan of £2,450 from the late Board of First Fruits. The Catholic Church is a handsome spacious edifice, and is approached through a fine avenue of trees. A Convent of the Presentation Order was established here thirty years ago. The Presbyterian, Independents, and Wesleyan Methodists have also houses of worship here. The Educational Institutions are—a School superintended by the protestant incumbent, and founded some years ago by £140 derived from the Lord Lieutenant's fund, and by funds from Erasmus Smith's bequest. A Female School, in connexion with the Hibernian Society, is held in the same building. A school deriving support from the National Board of Education is held in a large building, where 800 boys are educated. A Female School, under the superintendence of the nuns of the Presentation Convent, where the girls are taught lace-making, needle-work, &c. There are other schools, where upwards of 800 scholars additional are taught; and there are also Sunday Schools here. A handsome row of six Alms Houses was built in 1832, at the sole expense of the Very Rev. Dr. Mc Ennery, P.P. and V.G., for the accommodation of thirty-six poor widows. The postage collected in Tralee for the years ending the 5th January, 1851, was £1,094; in 1852, £1,322; and in 1853, £1,324; the excise for Tralee is paid in the Limerick district. The Bank of Ireland, the Provincial, and the National Banks of Ireland have branches of their establishments here. Three Newspapers are published in the town: the Kerry Evening Post, twice a week, the Kerry Examiner, and the Tralee Chronicle, every Friday.

Proceeding from Tralee, the Magharees, or Seven Hogs Islands,

Brandon Bay, and Brandon Head, are passed in succession; and still further south, Smerwick Harbour, which has deep water and good shelter, but is of small dimensions. Between this harbour and Dingle Bay, are the Blaskets or Ferriters Islands, twelve in number, some of them only huge rocks: they are the most westerly of all the islands on the Irish coast, and yet there is not a light placed on any of them, although it could be seen to such advantage at sea, as well from their extreme westerly position, as being composed of pointed rocks, which are always free from fog or mist. On the whole of this line of coast, upwards of seventy miles in extent, from Loophead to the Skelligs there is not a solitary leading light, where it is so much required; one should be placed here on the Foze Rock, and another on Tiraught. And as the coast south of the Blaskets to the Fasnet Rock, being a distance of more than fifty miles, is equally destitute of lights another should be placed on the Bull, and thus divide the coast into nearly equal distances. One of the largest ships forming the Spanish Armada, commanded by the Prince of Ascule, was wrecked here, and all on board, except a cabin boy, perished. Dunmore Head, lying inside of these islands, is the most westerly point on the main land; it forms, with the Douglas Head on the south, the entrance to Dingle Bay, which is of considerable width, and affords good anchorage within a mile from either shore. The harbours are Dingle and Ventry on the north side, and Castlemaine at the eastern extremity; but, with the exception of Ventry, they are only adapted to vessels requiring a moderate draught of water. The Bay abounds with fish, and there are 100 boats, and 500 to 600 men and boys employed in the pursuit. VALENTIA HARBOUR, one of those competing as a Transatlantic Packet Station in 1851, is next made. This harbour, from its extreme westerly position, was long considered the most eligible place to establish it; the inquiry on that occasion did not confirm the impression. It is formed by a strait, which separates an island of the same name, 6,418 acres in extent, from the main land: it has two passages, north-west and south-west, and is well sheltered. The north-west passage, which is that generally used, has deep water throughout; it is too narrow, however, for the accommodation of large vessels, being only 450 feet

in width at low water spring tides. The south-west entrance from Lough Kay is much wider, but it has a bar on which at low water there is only eleven feet; within the harbour there is good shelter in from five to seven fathoms water. Near the north-west entrance is Beg Innis Island, on which Cromwell placed a fort, and where there is a lighthouse, $51^{\circ} 56' N.$, $10^{\circ} 19' 16'' W.$: the lantern, fifty-four feet above the level of the sea, displays a fixed white light, seen at a distance of twelve miles, and a signal tower has been erected on Breahead, the most southern part of Valentia Island. This harbour certainly possesses great advantages, from its contiguity to the Skelligs, which consist of three islands. The great Skellig is $7\frac{3}{4}$ miles south-west of Breahead, and 8 miles north-west of Bolushead, and is composed of a mass of slated rock, rising perpendicularly to the height of 160 feet, and then forms two pyramids, one of which is 1,500 feet above the level of the sea. There are two lighthouses here, in $51^{\circ} 46' 10'' N.$, $10^{\circ} 32' W.$: they are 653 feet apart, and are distinguished as the upper and lower Skellig lights; their lanterns, 372 and 173 feet above high water, displaying two fixed white lights, seen respectively at a distance of twenty-five and eighteen miles at sea. The soundings about these islands are in ninety fathoms water, and abound with a great variety of fish. St. Finan's Bay, formed by the main land, is directly opposite, and Balliskelligs Bay, more to the southward, the entrance to which is formed by Bolushead on the north, and Hogahead on the south, near to which are the Hog Islands, and further south-east is the bay or river of Kenmare, so much frequented by the ancients and which is navigable at high water to the town of Kenmare, twenty-five miles from the sea. Balladonogan Bay lies between Codshead and Dursey Island, which, with three others, the Bull Cow, and Calf, are near the north-west entrance to Bantry Bay, which is formed by Blackhallhead on the north, and Sheepshead on the south. This was also a competing harbour in 1851 for the Government Transatlantic Packet Station. On Roanharriok Island, $51^{\circ} 39' N.$, $9^{\circ} 45' W.$, is placed a lighthouse: its lantern, fifty-five feet above the level of the sea, displays a fixed white and red light; but there should be a leading light placed on the Bull, which lies out well into the Atlantic for the purpose.

BANTRY BAY.

BANTRY BAY (*the Imbhar Sciens of the ancients*) is indeed a magnificent sheet of water, land-locked by gigantic abrupt headlands, beyond which the Killarney mountains are distinguished, their lofty summits mingling with the clouds. Berehaven, or Bearhaven, is situated near its entrance, and there is not probably a harbour in Europe that possesses such naval advantages, or is so well circumstanced for trade with America, the West Indies, and the western and southern ports of Europe. It also lies well for vessels trading from England and the east coast of Ireland with America. It possesses great facilities of ingress and egress with the wind from any point and in all weathers. Bear Island, the largest of those in this wide expanse of waters, runs parallel with the main land, and forms this splendid natural harbour, which it completely covers and protects. The western is the principal entrance from the bay, or rather from the Atlantic: it is of considerable width and great depth, having nineteen fathoms of water all over it, while inside there are 2,900 acres covered with from six to fifteen fathoms at low water spring tides, and 1,900 acres, with over five fathoms at low water. Should the weather at any time prove so adverse that a ship could not put to sea by the western passage, she can always beat out by the eastern, which is very capacious, as long as she can carry canvas. Nature has done everything for this harbour—man, nothing: although neither docks nor quays have been constructed, the rocky beach of the island forms a complete wharf, alongside of which a vessel may moor in over six fathoms of perfectly smooth water. Castletown is situated beyond the entrance on the main land, and is well circumstanced, and likely to be a place one day of great commercial importance. Independent of its admirable position for commerce, it is also well adapted for a naval dépôt, or harbour of defence. On a recent occasion great apprehensions were entertained from the feeble state

of our naval defences on the east coast of England, and considerable sums were expended in strengthening them, while the west coast of Ireland—England's weakest point, from its contiguity to the most formidable arsenals of France, and directly opposite the next greatest naval nation in the world, the United States, which accelerated steam power brings every day in closer contact—was left to its fate, and consequently no steps were taken to fortify this important place, which probably the Americans, who are pretty clear-sighted, might save England the trouble of doing, some day or other, by fortifying it for themselves. In its present state it is the most vulnerable point on the coast, and the most likely to tempt a large fleet to run for, affording as it does such immense accommodation : two instances of this are recorded in modern history : the first in aid of James II. ; the other during the existence of the first French republic, when under the government of the Directory. The latter formidable and fatal expedition was organized at the instance of Theobald Wolfe Tone, one of the most talented, indefatigable, and resolute of the United Irishmen. Having been forced into exile, he took refuge in the United States ; his mind still bent on rescuing his country from English domination, and cherishing some faint hopes that the government of France might be induced to invade Ireland, he embarked for that country, and arrived at Havre early in February, 1796. The difficulties he had to encounter on his arrival in Paris, without friends, money, or even a competent knowledge of the French language, would have overcome any other spirit than that of Tone ; but his enthusiasm in the cause of his country, and his indomitable courage, impelled him to persevere, and he at length prevailed on Mr. Munroe, the then American Ambassador at Paris, to favour his views. He was introduced to General Hoche, then the most rising military character of the day, and by him to Carnot, one of the Directory, and who had the management of the war department, and was appropriately styled the organizer of those early victories of Napoleon's which placed so many laurels on his brow. The Directory was induced by Tone's representation to entertain his proposed plan for the invasion of Ireland, and he was appointed *chef de brigade*. Active and extensive naval preparations were immediately commenced at Brest,

which continued during the summer and autumn of 1796, and a considerable army was collected and placed under the command of Hoche, who appointed Tone his adjutant-general, with instructions to draw up a proclamation or address to the Irish nation, which was printed previous to the sailing of the expedition, but so privately that it eluded the vigilance of the English spies, who were made to believe by documents fabricated for the purpose, that the armament was intended for another destination, and thus the British Government was misled, and consequently made no preparation in Ireland to resist so formidable an invasion. On the 1st December, all being ready, Tone embarked on board the *Indomptable*, a ship of the line, but the fleet did not proceed from Brest until the 16th. It consisted of seventeen ships of the line, thirteen frigates, five corvettes, two gun boats, and six transports, having on board 13,975 land forces, 45,000 stand of arms, and an ample supply of money and clothing. Admiral Galles and General Hoche, the naval and military commanders, were on board the same frigate, the *Fraternité*. Immediately on leaving the harbour, the *Sedusa*, a seventy-four gun ship, was wrecked on the Great Stevent; and a few days after the *Nestor*, another seventy-four, was driven ashore, and out of 1,800 men on board, 1,000 perished; these early disasters were disheartening, and ominous of the fatal result that soon followed. The storm that ensued, which, even in that advanced season of the year, was more than usually severe, was succeeded by a dense fog which overspread the sea; signals were useless, and the fleet was scattered in every direction, scarcely knowing what course to steer: of the forty-three sail which originally composed this expedition, only sixteen reached Bantry Bay, where they came to anchor on the 22nd December off Bear Island. The *Fraternité*, with Hoche on board, who was the only person entrusted by the Directory as to future operations, had parted company with the fleet soon after leaving Brest, and while waiting her arrival, another gale, even more violent than that it had encountered at sea, dispersed it still more, so that on the 26th there were only seven sail of the line and one frigate at anchor in the Bay; the land forces were also diminished to 4,168 men. In this emergency a council of war was held, at which Grouchy, afterwards Marshal

Grouchy, who was second in command, presided. Tone, who had arrived also, forcibly urged the propriety of landing the force at their disposal, which was well appointed with military stores, and, although numerically small to that originally embarked, was yet sufficient for the conquest of the country, as there would be a general rising of the Irish people in their favour, two-thirds of whom were disaffected to the English government ; but Grouchy's evil genius was predominant ; his phlegmatic, hesitating, and unenterprising disposition, and strict adherence to military rule, which regulated all his operations, and nineteen years after lost Napoleon the Battle of Waterloo, prevailed on the present occasion, and he obstinately refused to land without orders from Hoche. On the 27th the fleet left the Bay to cruise off the mouth of the Shannon, in hopes of meeting the Admiral, or collecting such scattered ships as might be hovering about ; a portion of it, or other ships coming up to join it, put in again on the 6th of January, and after remaining two or three days inactive set sail for France. A day or two after the *Fraternité* arrived, with Hoche on board, who, finding that the fleet had been there and no landing effected, also proceeded back to France, and reached Rochelle on the 15th January, having had several narrow escapes of being captured by the English fleet. Independent of the two ships of the line lost on leaving the French coast, the *Tartare*, with 625 men on board, including troops, was captured after a short action by the *Polyphemus*, and brought into Cork harbour. The *Ville d'Orient*, with 400 hussars fully equipped, was taken into Kinsale by the *Unicorn* ; the *Scaevola* gun-boat was lost off the Irish coast ; the *Justine* transport foundered at sea, and all on board perished ; the *Resolve* was dismasted in a collision with the *Indomptable*, and obliged to be towed into Brest ; the *Surveillant*, seventy-four, was scuttled in Bantry Bay ; and the *Impatiente*, a seventy-four also, was wrecked off Sheepshead (not Misenhead, as stated by Mr. James in his Naval History, Mrs. Hall, and others). Since the days of the Spanish Armada, so complete a destruction of a naval armament had not occurred ; both were intended to affect the power of England in the most vital part, and both were dispersed and overthrown by the adverse elements. But it must be admitted that these armaments put to

sea too late in the season, and were, therefore, very likely to meet with such disasters. The Armada was overtaken by the autumnal equinox, and the month of December was ill chosen for naval operations on the west coast of Ireland. Those in Bantry Bay, however, might have been avoided, and must have occurred from the naval commander being ignorant of the splendid safety harbour that Berehaven afforded, where, had he taken shelter with that portion of the fleet which had arrived, it would have escaped the hurricane it was exposed to in the Bay; but he was probably apprehensive of being attacked by the English fleet, in a position not so well adapted for manœuvring as outside. This expedition, although certainly formidable, was greatly magnified by all the English publications of the day; the Gazette of the 3rd January, 1797, represented the land force to consist of 20,000 men, the Annual Register increased it to 25,000, and Allison's History of Europe, and almost all the other histories have it the same; but even small as the force was that arrived, it was quite sufficient to overrun the country, as neither the English or Irish governments had made the slightest preparation to resist it, and the Irish people were anxiously waiting such assistance. On the same side and higher up in the Bay, is Adrigole and Glengariff Harbours, and on the opposite shore Bantry Harbour, formed by Whiddy Island and the main land. It is twenty miles higher up the Bay than Berehaven, the navigation free from all danger, and from four to six fathoms water in the harbour, which is well sheltered from wind and sea.

Proceeding still further south, Dunmanus Bay presents itself, the entrance to which is formed by Sheepshead, 790 feet high on the north; and Three Castles Head, 370 feet high on the south: on the promontory with the latter is Mizen head, the most southern point of Ireland, the peak of which, 760 feet high, is a splendid landmark for vessels coming from the south-west, or west. There is a signal tower on it, as well as on Sheepshead. Dunmanus was one of the competing harbours for a Transatlantic Packet Station; but although the entrance is well defined, and three miles in width, and that there is six fathoms at low water in Dunbeacon Harbour, it is too far inside the bay, and too small for a packet station, and the bay itself difficult to beat out of, with the wind

from the south or south-west. Crookhaven, another competing harbour, is formed inside of Brown Head, a continuation of the same promontory. There is a lighthouse on Rock Island, on the north-east side, near the entrance, $51^{\circ} 28' 35''$ N., $9^{\circ} 43' 31''$ W.; its lantern, sixty-seven feet above the level of the sea, displays a fixed white light, seen at a distance of thirteen miles. This harbour is much frequented by vessels trading between Great Britain and America. It is easy of access, and inside has an area of 350 acres, on eighty-four of which there are five fathoms at low water spring tides; but, although it has considerable capabilities otherwise, it is not adapted for a Transatlantic Packet Station. The large expanse of water between this harbour and Cape Clear Island, has been called Roaring Water Bay. The light which so long distinguished Cape Clear as the leading star to St. George's Channel, was discontinued on the 1st January, 1854; but on the Fasnet Rock, about three miles north-west of that Island, which has been deemed more suitable, a lighthouse has been erected $51^{\circ} 23' 18''$ N., $9^{\circ} 36' 25''$ W.; its lantern, 148 feet above high water, displaying a revolving light red belt at mid-height, seen fifteen miles at sea. At the northern extremity of this Bay is Skull Harbour, or Long Island Sound, another competing harbour. It is formed by Inniskerrin Island and the main land, and has two channels. King's Sound is considered the best, but it is easy of access from both, and, although small, is capable of sheltering a limited number of the largest vessels. East of this Bay is Baltimore Harbour, of which Skibbereen is the port. It is at the entrance to St. George's Channel, and was a place of great antiquity under the name of *Dunashad*. It is supposed to have derived its present name from its being used by the Druids as a place of worship to Baal; hence *Baal-ti-more*, or the great habitation of Baal. The English who settled here after Desmond's revolt, built a strong castle to defend themselves from the natives; and in 1631, of all the numerous descents on the island, one of the most extraordinary now took place. Several Algerine Corsairs entered the harbour, reduced the castle, plundered the town, and carried off 200 of the inhabitants, principally English, to Algiers as captives. About twelve miles higher up the river Ilan, stands the town of Skibbereen.

SKIBBEREEN.

SKIBBEREEN is a maritime town, in the parishes of Abbeystrowry and Creagh, in the county of Cork. It is situated $51^{\circ} 18' N.$, $9^{\circ} 2' W.$, on the river Ilan, $167\frac{1}{2}$ miles S.W. of Dublin, and 42 of Cork. It contains an area of 118 acres, and in 1831 the number of houses was 1,014, and the population 4,429 persons. In 1841 the houses were 753, and the inhabitants 4,715. In 1851 there were only 670 houses and 3,856 inhabitants; being a decrease on 1841 of 83 houses and 859 persons—but there were in the union workhouse 2,717 inmates. Skibbereen is a place of modern date, and had no representative in the Irish parliament; nor have the inhabitants adopted the Town Improvements Act, 9 Geo. IV., c. 82. It is composed of several streets, and that portion in the parish of Creagh is well built. The Ilan is navigable for vessels drawing from ten to eleven feet of water, from the Harbour of Baltimore to Old Court, within two miles of the town. Some years ago there was a considerable trade here in coarse linen, checks, and handkerchiefs, but it has ceased in a great measure. Extensive corn stores and mills were built by Mr. J. Clarke, which used to manufacture flour and oatmeal, to some extent, for the English markets; a brewery, established by Mr. D. MacCarthy, supplies Skibbereen and the neighbouring towns with excellent porter and light ale. Formerly Baltimore was the port for Skibbereen, Castlehaven, Skull, &c., and the custom-house was at Castle Townsend; but in the official returns Skibbereen is now denominated the port, and the trade of all the others included in it. Previous to the famine of 1847, they exported grain, flour, oatmeal, &c., to Great Britain; but since then they have all, more or less, imported Indian corn from thence, as well as from foreign ports, with timber, deals, &c.; and from Great Britain the usual imports, such as tea, sugar, coffee, coals, salt, iron, and British manufactured articles. The Irish Railway Commissioners estimated the value of the exports from this port, including Baltimore, &c., for 1835, at £37,000, and the imports at £18,000. The trade of the port and its branches, since 1840, will be shown by the following Tables:—

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of this Port, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending with the five preceding years.

Years ending 1st January	ENTERING INWARDS										CLEARING OUTWARDS										Registered Shipping.	Customs' Duties Collected.						
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					Total					British and Coasting Trade.							Total					
	British.		Foreign.		Total.	British.		Foreign.		Total.	British.		Foreign.		Total.	British.		Foreign.		Total.			British.		Foreign.		Total.	
	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.			Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.	Vess.	Tonnage.
	£																											
1841	3	1120	2	500	5	1620	249	10937	254	12557	3	774	1	229	4	1003	326	12440	330	13443	104	2944	1717					
1842	6	1169	6	1169	198	9141	204	10310	5	1295	5	1295	363	14850	368	16145	96	2789	936					
1843	4	843	4	843	273	12305	277	13148	6	1345	6	1345	354	14382	360	15727	109	3329	116					
1844	5	1226	5	1226	195	8777	200	10003	5	977	5	977	352	14177	357	15154	113	3480	127					
1845	7	1428	7	1428	214	9629	221	11057	6	1483	6	1483	399	15398	405	16881	115	3621	135					
	25	5786	2	500	27	6286	1129	50789	1156	57075	25	5874	1	229	26	6103	1794	71247	1820	77350	536	16103	3051					
1846	10	2143	10	2143	219	9860	229	12003	11	2696	11	2696	470	16526	481	19222	110	3505	197					
1847	14	2986	14	2986	304	12852	318	15838	16	3844	16	3844	306	11423	325	15267	123	3788	734					
1848	12	1440	2	472	14	1912	343	14891	357	16803	11	1736	1	277	12	2013	141	7453	153	9466	120	3926	1032					
1849	5	935	4	586	9	1621	319	14030	328	15651	4	782	5	909	9	1691	207	10034	216	11725	115	3516	819					
1850	8	1304	2	386	10	1690	231	10330	241	12020	2	402	3	687	5	1089	182	9332	187	10421	112	3276	938					
5 years '46 to '50	49	8808	8	1544	57	10352	1416	61963	1473	72315	44	9460	9	1873	53	11333	1306	54768	1359	66101	580	18011	3720					
5 years '41 to '45	25	5786	2	500	27	6286	1129	50789	1156	57075	25	5874	1	229	26	6103	1794	71247	1820	77350	536	16103	3051					
10 years. '41 to '50	74	14594	10	2044	84	16638	2545	112752	2629	129390	69	15394	10	2102	79	17486	3100	126015	3179	143451	1116	34114	6771					
Increase...	24	3022	6	1044	30	4066	287	11174	317	15240	19	3586	8	1644	27	5230	388	16479	361	11249	44	1908	669					

These Tables show, that during the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered this port from foreign ports, tonnage to the extent of 16,638 tons, of which 2,044 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 12,752 tons: total Inwards 129,390 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 17,436 tons cleared out for Foreign ports; and for Great Britain and Coastways 126,015 tons: total Outwards 143,451 tons. There were registered in this port 1,116 vessels of 34,114 tons, and the Customs' duties collected therein were £6,771. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase in the Foreign trade Inwards of 4,066 tons, of which 1,044 tons were Foreign shipping, and on that with Great Britain and Coastways 11,174 tons: total increase Inwards 15,240 tons. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 5,230 tons, of which 1,644 tons were Foreign shipping; but there was a decrease of 16,479 tons on the trade with Great Britain and Coastways: total decrease Outwards 11,249 tons. During the last five years there were 44 vessels and 1,908 tons more registered than in the previous five years; but in 1845 there were 3 vessels and 345 tons of shipping more belonging to this port than in 1850. The Customs' duties increased, on the five years, £669.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, including Baltimore, &c., the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows :

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tons.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Foreign Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Trade Tons.	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Foreign Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Trade Tons.		
1851 ..	1,326	666	10,953	286	487	9,907	2,823	783
1852 ..	1,174	899	12,497	484	203	11,403	2,550	910
1853 ..	2,315	598	10,349	486	..	9,146	2,553	867
1854 ..	1,337	1,183	11,553	292	611	11,905	2,487	1,084

The trade of this port, therefore, for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 2,765 tons Foreign, and 20,860 in the British and Coasting trade. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 2,760 tons, and the British and Coasting 23,900 tons : being a decrease on the former of 5 tons, and an increase on the latter of 3,040 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 3,399 tons, and the British and Coasting 19,495 tons : being an increase on the former of 639 tons, and a decrease on the latter of 4,405 tons. In 1854 the Foreign trade was 3,423 tons, and the British and Coasting 23,458 tons : being an increase on the former of 24 tons, and on the latter of 3,963 tons. The registered shipping, which consisted of 104 vessels of 2,823 tons in 1851, decreased to ninety-seven vessels and 2,487 tons in 1854. There are no steamers registered for this port, and the average tonnage of the sailing vessels is only 25 tons, many good fishing smacks being of larger burden ; and there was an increase in customs' revenue of £301. The number of persons employed in collecting the customs' revenue of this port in 1849, was forty-one, whose united salaries amounted to £649 4s. 7d.

The Public Buildings are—The Sessions House, a handsome building in the Grecian style of architecture, to which the Bridewell is attached ; the Infantry Barracks ; and the Union Workhouse, which was built to accommodate 1,580 inmates. The union contains an area of 115,024 acres in the County Cork ; and a population of 38,059 persons, in twenty-three electoral divisions, represented by twenty-four elected and twenty-one ex-officio Guardians, who meet on Thursdays. The property valued to the poor-rate in 1852 was £41,167 ; the expenditure £7,890 6s. 8½d. ; and the rate in aid levied in 1851 was £344 15s. 8d., none of which was issued in its

support that year, and only £25 in 1852. This is most gratifying in respect to this union, as about thirty years ago the most appalling poverty prevailed in this district; and the condition of the poor must have greatly improved when it contributed to the rate in aid, and required scarcely any assistance from that fund. There is a School in the house, in connexion with the National Board of Education, in which 237 male inmates received instruction in 1853. The Protestant Church is a large edifice, with a tower at the east end. It was erected in 1827, at an expense of £1,200, towards which £900 was contributed by the Board of First-fruits. The Catholic Church is a spacious building in the Grecian style of architecture, erected in 1826, by the late Dr. Collins, Catholic Bishop of Ross, and cost £3,000. The Wesleyan is a small but neat house of worship. Large schools have been founded by Dr. Collins, which derive support from the National Board of Education. The Protestant Incumbent established a boys' and girls' school in 1825; and there is also a Sunday school here.

Leaving Skibbereen by Castle Townsend, Castlehaven, Glandore harbour, and Clonakilty and Court Macksherry bays are passed, and the Oldhead of Kinsale is made. The light that was formerly exhibited here has been discontinued, and a lighthouse erected in 1853 on the south point of the Oldhead in $51^{\circ} 36' 11''$ N., $8^{\circ} 31' 58''$ W.; its lantern, 236 feet above the level of the sea, displays two red belts, seen at a distance of twenty-one miles. Inside the harbour there is another lighthouse, placed on Fort Charles, in $51^{\circ} 48' 2''$ N., $8^{\circ} 30'$ W.; its lantern, ninety-eight feet above high water, displays a fixed white light, seen at a distance of fourteen miles. No vessel can enter the harbour of Kinsale without coming almost alongside of this Fort. It was erected in 1681, by the Duke of Ormond, in honour of Charles II., and cost £70,000.

KINSALE is a handsome little town situated on the river Bandon, 177 miles S.W. of Dublin, and 15 S. of Cork. It is a parliamentary borough, and comprises an area of 290 acres. Its population, however, appears to be seriously on the decline. In 1831 it contained 1,266 houses, and 7,823 inhabitants; in 1841 the houses were only 1,007, and the population 6,918; and in 1851 it further decreased to 806 houses and 5,506 inhabitants. It was represented

by two members in the Irish, and returns one to the united parliament; its present representative is John Isaac Heard, Esq., a resident gentleman of the borough: the constituency under the 2nd and 3rd William 4, c. 88, consisted of 192 householders of £10 and 32 freemen, which under 13th and 14th Vict., c. 69, have decreased to 156. It is a place of great antiquity, and is said to derive its name from the Irish of *Cean Teale*, the headland of the sea, it being only a few miles from the Oldhead, on which De Courcy built a castle soon after the Anglo-Norman invasion. Edward III. granted the town a charter, which was confirmed by Richard II., Edward IV., and Elizabeth. There are some interesting historical events connected with this place, the most important of which were the landing of a Spanish force, under Don Juan de Aquila, in 1691, which took possession of the town and castle, and the subsequent siege and battle in the neighbourhood, so disastrous to the Spanish and Irish alliance: and the arrival of James II., in 1689, with 5,000 French troops commanded by Count Lausan, for which a similar number of Irish were embarked here in the return ships under Major-general MacCarthy to fill the gap left in the French army. The harbour, though smaller than Queenstown, is deep, well sheltered, and has good anchorage, and is capable of accommodating a considerable number of vessels; but those drawing more than 11 feet must wait the tide to cross the bar, within which there is water in the bed of the river for the largest ships to the town, and for those under 200 tons to Collier's quay, 12 miles further up. Its proximity to Cork (of which port it is a branch, and its customs' duties included in its receipts) interferes materially with its commerce. The tonnage inwards here in 1835 was 1,062 tons Foreign, and 12,753 tons coastways. Its exports same year, consisting chiefly of agricultural produce, amounted to £13,000; and its imports of timber from British America, and coal, iron, and salt from England and Wales, to £18,000. Its principal trade, however, is its fisheries; and so skilful are the men employed in them, not only in that pursuit, but also as pilots; and their assistance to shipping off this coast considered so valuable that it exempted them from impressment during the long war: their boats, called hookers, of from 10 to 20 tons, are also admirably adapted for the purpose. The Kinsale fishery district is 60 miles in extent from Flathead to

Inchy Bridge; and in 1860 there were 790 registered vessels in it employing 4,132 men and boys. The coast from hence to the entrance of Cork harbour is bold, the soundings regular, and the water deep, with abundance of sea-room, so that it can be safely attained in all weathers.

CORK HARBOUR, QUEENSTOWN, PASSAGE, &c.—This noble harbour is entered through a deep channel, varying in width from a mile to a mile and a half; the shores on either side are bold and rugged, and to the east at Roche's point, near the entrance, $51^{\circ} 48' N.$, $8^{\circ} 15' W.$, stands a lofty lighthouse, the lantern, ninety-seven feet above high water, and displaying a fixed white light, seen fourteen miles to sea. The old church and whitewashed spire of Temple Breda, adorn the western side. The narrowest part of the channel is between Forts Carlisle and Camden, which occupy eminences on either shore, and command the entrance. The largest ship of war has sufficient water to pass through at any time of tide, and within hail of the shore. The harbour, when entered, is a splendid object environed by lofty undulating hills, and its centre occupied by a group of fortified islands, under which the whole war navy of Great Britain might safely ride. Of these, Spike Island is the largest and most important, directly facing the entrance to the harbour, and forming a natural break-water to the sea, which runs outside mountains high when the wind blows hard from the southward. It is strongly fortified, and may be considered the chief defence of the harbour. Proceeding inward by the west end of Spike Island, two other islands appear in view. Haulbowline, a sterile rocky mound, covered with ordnance buildings, barracks, and storehouses, and Rocky Island, farther to the west, a mere craggy islet, on which there are two powder magazines, and a watch-tower on its apex. Bearing more to the east, the beautiful and magnificent inner harbour is entered, and directly opposite is the steep shore of Great Island, on the west side of which, overlooking this fine natural harbour, stands the town of COVE, now QUEENSTOWN. It is seated on the side of a steep hill, and rises from the water's edge, terrace over terrace. It is from the most elevated of these, and Spy hill, which overhangs the town, that an extensive prospect of the harbour is to be obtained; and nothing can be imagined more beautiful than

the broad expanse of this land-locked haven, with its fortified isles, encompassed by lofty hills, and crowned with innumerable villas and mansions. One of the most conspicuous objects, and seen to great advantage from the harbour, is the new Catholic Cathedral, with its lofty and handsome spire, situated in an elevated part of the town; the Protestant Church and the Admiralty are in a line with it.

Complaints had been long and deservedly made that Queenstown was unprovided with wharfs or slips for the accommodation of the royal or mercantile navy; and after the Queen's visit in 1849, the Admiralty took the matter into its favourable consideration, and constructed the present splendid Victoria pier, forming two boat harbours or docks; and the beach was widened and improved, so as to form a handsome *esplanade*. Connected with this pier, the jetty which the Harbour Commissioners proposed constructing at Queenstown, is to be extended from hence into deep water, where vessels drawing twenty-four feet can lie afloat at low water. The Harbour Commissioners have otherwise expended a fair proportion of their revenue here. In 1848 they placed a floating light on the Spit bank in $51^{\circ} 50' 41''$ N., $8^{\circ} 16' 26''$ W.; the lantern, thirty-two feet above high water, exhibits a red light, seen at nine miles distance; the cost of erection and maintenance for that year was £242 4s. 5d., and in 1849, £214 12s. 8d. They expended on a pier at Queenstown, removing rocks and dredging the Ballinacarra river, £994, and constructed another pier at Aghada, at a cost of £143. At the west end, the late Lord Middleton erected a fine quay, near which is the Royal Cork Yacht Club-house. The town and trade of Queenstown are rapidly improving, owing in a great measure to the spirited enterprise and persevering industry of Messrs. James Scott & Co., whose new buildings are very extensive; among others they have constructed a large timber pond, capable of containing 2,000 tons of timber. They are also owners of upwards of 6,000 tons of the Cork registered shipping; and their new ship, the Beechworth, 1,266 tons register, was the admiration of Dublin, when recently receiving troops on board at that port for New Zealand. Near the timber pond is now in course of construction an extensive dry dock, by Mr. Joseph Wheeler, of Cork, for repairing and building vessels on a large scale, of both wood and iron. The Religious establishments have been recently increased here, by the erection of a handsome

Presbyterian meeting-house, and a convent of the Sisters of Mercy, who established a school in connexion with the National Board of Education, where 445 female children were instructed by them in 1853. There are two other National Schools, and two on Haulbowline and Spike Islands, where 555 males and 53 females are instructed. The town is regulated by Commissioners, under the 9th Geo. IV., c. 82; and the inhabitants have applied for the Towns Improvement Bill of 1854; its population in 1841 was 5,142, and in 1851, 11,428 persons. Spike Island is now a convict depôt, the number of convicts there at present is about 1,000, employed in improving the glaciis and in manufacturing cocoa-nut fibre into mats, &c.

Previous to the American war of independence, Queenstown was an insignificant place, composed of a few fishing huts; but during its progress it rose to some importance, and in the last general war was the rendezvous of the fleets destined for America, the West Indies, and the Mediterranean. It was not then an unusual thing to see from four to five hundred sail of merchantmen assembled here waiting convoy, which frequently continued several weeks when contrary winds prevailed. To see Cork Harbour to advantage, a large fleet extended over its waters is a necessary appendage; and then it is a magnificent sight indeed! The fleets generally took in their provisions and naval stores here, and many of the Cork merchants reaped a rich harvest during the progress of the war, by supplying them. It also gave profitable employment to a number of persons of various occupations, and the scene it created was one of great interest and animation. The peace, however, came, and this harbour was in some degree deserted; and Cork, as well as Queenstown, felt the sad effects of the change, which was soon after aggravated by the Government suppressing it as a naval station. It was subsequently, however, restored, and a small squadron stationed here, consisting of the Conway ship of the line, a small frigate, and brig, under the command of Sir F. W. Carroll, which have been since superseded by the splendid war steamer, the Hogue, commanded by Admiral Chads. Trade from 1815 to 1820 appears to have been in a most languid state, and the commercial community merely indulged the hope that a new war might arise to better their condition. Finding their expectations so long in abeyance, they wisely turned their attention to the arts of peace.

Leaving Queenstown, and proceeding onward to Passage, the river Lee is entered; the south side here is the most attractive, and the first object deserving notice is the village of Monkstown and its handsome church, situated in a lovely glen; the ancient mansion, more retired, stands on an eminence surrounded by groves of tufted trees. The Harbour Commissioners expended £85 here in constructing an eligible pier. The Giant's Stairs next appear, but the delightful road along shore, which is cut across the rock, has materially injured their appearance; sufficient, however, remains to gratify the stranger's curiosity. Between this and Passage, baths have been established, much in the oriental style of architecture; and a long line of marine lodges, close to the shore, contributes to enliven the splendid landscape, which everywhere meets the eye in this delightful neighbourhood.

The river here is sufficiently deep to admit the largest merchantmen at ordinary spring tides, and there is upwards of twenty feet of water throughout to Passage, the lowest neaps. At PASSAGE, vessels requiring a great depth of water, sharp in the build, or copper sheathed, have heretofore discharged their cargoes, but at a charge of 2s. 6d. per ton lighterage, which, with other inconveniences, were much complained of by the merchants of Cork. Very considerable improvements have been made at West Passage within the last few years, which would have been of much greater utility had they preceded the deepening of the river. Among others, the Cork and Passage Railway Company have built a wharf at its terminus, for the accommodation of large ships. But the most spirited and extensive undertaking probably ever attempted in Ireland by individual enterprise, has been effected here by Mr. William Brown, Jun.

THE ROYAL VICTORIA DOCK YARD, on which the skill, capital, and untiring exertions of the proprietor, for the last five or six years, have been expended, is now completed, at a cost of £150,000. The docks are two in number, and are constructed on a magnificent scale. There is ten feet of water to the entrance at low ebb tide, twenty-one feet at neap tides, and the foundations are laid twenty-seven feet under it. The Royal Victoria Dock has an entrance of eighty feet six inches in width, and from twenty-one to twenty-four feet of water over the sill, and has accommodation for four of the largest

ships or steamers yet built at the same time. It is worked by a caisson or floating gate, composed of timber, and by means thereof can be used as a dry or floating dock. The largest ship with a full cargo can be docked and kept afloat, and the water lowered to any required point, so that a leak may be discovered, and in many instances save the expense of discharging the cargo and much valuable time. The Royal Albert Dock is fifty-five feet in width at the entrance, and has from fifteen to eighteen feet of water over the sill; the admission to this dock is by a slide gate of timber, on the flat arch principle, and is only three feet thick. These docks are well sheltered, and accessible to the largest ships at all times of tide. In the establishment there are extensive stores for the deposit of cargoes of every description, and every requisite for repairing ships with the greatest despatch. It is proposed to form a railway along the margin of the entire wharf, and connect it with the Cork and Passage Railway, by which means a vessel could discharge her cargo into waggons on the rail for transit to the city. The distance from Passage to Cork is about five miles: although the scenery, if possible, is still more beautiful, the navigation becomes more difficult, and the river spreads out so as to assume the appearance of a broad lake environed by hills and wooded slopes. Blackrock Castle, in its course, is an interesting object, and is conspicuously situated at the extremity of a peninsula, backed by woods and distant hills, while nearer lie the richly clothed eminences of Lota and Dunkettle. This castle is mentioned as a stronghold in the reign of Elizabeth, and was well circumstanced to protect that part of the river. The corporation of Cork has repaired and rendered it a handsome and commodious structure; but although it has still a formidable appearance, it could ill sustain one of our modern sieges. Adjoining the castle stands a lofty tower, and the Harbour Commissioners have placed a fixed light on it, which costs about £60 a year. Opposite the village of Blackrock, the romantic mountain stream, the Glanmire, joins the waters of the Lee. Passing the Douglas channel, over which the Passage Railway Directors have thrown a bridge, Cork is approached amidst plantations, gardens, parks, and pleasure-grounds, while tasteful villas and stately mansions enrich and beautify the scene.

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CORK.

CORK, formerly called *Cercach Bascoine*, is a county of a city, and until very recently ranked second in population to Dublin, and during the last general war surpassed it in commerce; but Belfast has now assumed the second place in respect to both. It is situated on the river Lee, the *Luvius* of Ptolemy, $51^{\circ} 53' N.$, $8^{\circ} 29' W.$, 124 miles S.S.W. of Dublin by the old mail coach road; but by the Great Southern and Western Railway, $164\frac{1}{2}$ statute miles. It is the capital of the province of Munster, and its ancient area was 48,036 acres; but it comprises at present only 2,683 acres. In 1821 the population was 100,658 persons; in 1831 it increased to 107,016. In 1841 and 1851, the houses and population in the city were as follows:—

Years.	HOUSES.				POPULATION.		
	Inhabited.	Uninhab.	Bldg.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Persons.
1841	8,773	1,316	24	10,113 ...	35,489	45,231	80,720
1851	9,419	1,048	48	10,510 ...	39,052	46,693	85,745

Being an increase of 646 inhabited houses, 24 in progress of building, and a decrease in the uninhabited houses of 273; the increase in the population was 3,563 males, and 1,462 females—total 5,025; the females in 1851 exceeded the males by 7,641 persons, or $19\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The corporation is of very ancient date, and charters have been granted the city by John, as Lord of Ireland, in the reign of Henry II., by Henry III., Edward I., Edward II., Edward III., Edward IV., Henry VII., Henry VIII., Edward VI., Elizabeth, James I., Charles I., and George II. The jurisdiction of the old corporation extended three miles in every direction from the city walls; but it is now confined to the limits of the borough. The corporate body consists of a mayor, 14 aldermen, and 42 town councillors, elected by the 7 wards, north-east, north-west, north-

centre, south-centre, centre, west, and south wards, into which the city is now divided. It returned two members to the Irish, and its right to equal representation in the United Parliament was recognised by the Act of Union. It is at present represented by William Fagan and Francis B. Beamish, esquires, both residents of Cork. The 2nd Will. IV., c. 88, extended the franchise to £10 householders, reserving the votes of the resident burgesses and freemen for life. Under this Act, the constituency in 1834 was 4,461; in 1849 it decreased to 3,244. In 1851, under the 13th & 14th Vict., c. 69, it still further decreased to 3,039; in 1853 it was 3,152, consisting of 2,275 rated occupiers, 497 freemen, and 380 of other qualifications. The revenue of the city in 1851, was £7,504 1s. 5d., and the expenditure £7,737 17s. 2d. The public works connected with it are under the management of commissioners; the wide street and harbour boards comprise 30 members—the commercial buildings, 15 directors—the chamber of commerce, 14—the market jury is composed of the mayor, sheriff, and 27 members—the committee of merchants consists of 4 presidents, and 29 members—the pipe-water committee has 12 commissioners. The recorder holds a court for criminal and personal cases weekly, and a monthly court of civil jurisdiction. Cork is built on an island of the Lee, “which enclōseth it in her divided flood.” This really charming river has its source in the romantic lake of Gougane Barra, 55 miles from the city; its course is gentle, and its banks are exceedingly picturesque and beautiful. It has also interesting historical associations; numerous castles, now in ruins, look down upon it; and many monasteries and abbeys skirt its sides: there are nine bridges over it, which unite the north and south side of Cork; one of these, the Anglesey Bridge, is a fine specimen of modern architecture. Cork has not been inappropriately called “the beautiful city.” The South Mall, the Grand Parade, George and Patrick Streets, are spacious; and the houses lofty, and well built. The Mardyke and City Park are splendid public walks; and the environs may vie in rich and enchanting scenery with any city or town in Europe.

Cork, in all probability, had its origin previous to the Christian era, and if not the identical city, there can be no doubt that one of considerable importance then existed between the *promontorium*

Austrinum, now Mizen-head, and the S.E. part of the coast in the latitude of Cork. It is on record, that in the fourth century the Irish monarch, Crimthán, who was also styled King of Albany, fitted out a formidable expedition here for the invasion of Gaul and Britain ; and, in conjunction with the Picts, defeated the Romans, ravaged their settlements, and returned to Ireland laden with Roman spoil. The peopling of the city is by some writers attributed to St. Finbar, who attracted great numbers to this his favourite abode. The Danes, in their early irruptions, burnt and devastated the ancient city several times ; but early in the eleventh century they fortified and walled it round : some years after, however, it was in the hands of the Irish. In 1080 it was destroyed by lightning, and was rebuilt by the Irish. The Danes of Dublin, Wicklow, and Waterford, attacked it in 1088, but were defeated with great slaughter by the natives of Oneachach, now West Carbery. When the Anglo-Normans invaded Ireland, Cork was in the hands of the Danes, who paid tribute to Dermot MacCarthy, prince of Desmond. On the arrival of Henry II., this chief was the first to acknowledge his sovereignty, having surrendered this city to him and paid tribute for his other possessions. Henry placed an English garrison in it, which was obliged soon after to evacuate it ; and MacCarthy resumed possession. In 1177 Henry granted the country round Cork to Miles Cogan and Robert Fitzstephen. In 1185 the city was besieged by MacCarthy ; and Fitzstephen, who commanded the garrison, would have been obliged to surrender, had he not been relieved by Raymond le Gros and a considerable force from Wexford ; and for some time after it was the only place in Munster in possession of the Anglo-Normans. It was again closely besieged by the men of Desmond, and a large force despatched to its relief was totally defeated ; but the usual jealousies and divisions prevailed among the Irish leaders, and Daniel MacCarthy with his troops abandoned the siege. Shandon Castle, erected about this period, contributed to keep the Irish in check. In 1199, John de Spenser was provost, and is the first civic magistrate of Cork on record. For three centuries it appears to have remained undisturbed in the hands of the English. In 1492, and again in 1495, Perkin Warbeck, who assumed the title of Richard Duke of York, presented

himself to the people of Cork, and was favourably received by them, as they deemed him the legitimate prince. John Walter, the mayor, accompanied him in his disastrous expedition to Cornwall ; where, after some ineffectual attempts, both were taken prisoners by Henry VII., and subsequently executed at Tyburn. For its participating in this rebellion, Cork was deprived of the few privileges it possessed by this monarch ; who, however, subsequently granted it a charter. During the reign of Elizabeth, the neighbouring country was devastated by the most barbarous and protracted warfare ; but, towards the close, she appointed Sir George Carew president of Munster, who took possession of the city with 3,000 foot and 250 horse. Carew, who wrote the *Hibernia Pacata*, appears to have been an apt disciple of Burleigh, Elizabeth's subtle minister, and to have effected more in reducing the southern province to her rule by his deceit and gold, than he could have done by the sword. The mayor of Cork must have had a presentiment of the evils that were to result from the government of the most despicable and base of all the English monarchs, when, supported by the corporation and inhabitants, he refused to proclaim James I. The citizens attacked Shandon Castle, and demolished the Queen's fort ; but they were obliged to succumb to the lord deputy, who marched into the city with a considerable force. In 1608, the city and liberties were constituted a distinct county. In 1642, General Barry and Lord Muskerry, with a confederate force, were obliged to retreat from before its walls ; but in 1644 it was surrendered into their hands. On the approach of Cromwell, in 1649, it declared for the parliament. It was about this period that the celebrated William Penn, the philanthropic founder of the state of Virginia, became a Quaker, from accidentally hearing William Lowe, one of that sect, preach here. In 1688 a large force, under General MacCarthy, took possession of the city for James II. ; and on the 12th of March, 1689, that monarch landed from France, at Kinsale, and immediately after entered Cork, where he was received with every demonstration of joy. In 1691 it was besieged by the Earl, afterwards Duke, of Marlborough, with whom was joined in the command the Duke of Wirtemberg. The brave governor, MacElligot, laid waste the suburbs, and after five days' resolute resistance, and the Duke of Grafton, a volunteer in William's

army, being killed in the assault, the garrison surrendered. After this event, the annals of Cork furnish little of military importance to the present time ; and its commercial operations will be found in the proper place. In 1787 the late William IV., then serving in the *Pegasus*, arrived at Cove, and visited the city. In 1789, snow suddenly dissolving, laid the city under water to the depth of from five to seven feet. On the 2nd of August, 1849, Queen Victoria, Prince Albert, and four of the royal children arrived at Cove, from which circumstance it has been since called Queenstown ; and after having visited Cork the following day, and proceeded through the principal streets of the city in state, they re-embarked and proceeded by sea to the metropolis. November 1st, 1853, Cork was visited by one of the most tremendous floods recorded in its history ; the city was inundated in every direction, and Patrick's bridge, at midday, with a number of persons on it, were engulfed in the foaming torrent, not one of whom was saved or seen alive after their immersion. The loss of property was considerable, and Camden and the Coal quays were seriously injured.

Harbour Improvements, &c.—Although Cork Harbour, from its entrance to Passage, is probably unrivalled in extent, in depth of water, and safe anchorage, yet the upper or inner part, between Passage and the city, has been, previous to 1820, of the most opposite character, although the Irish Parliament, between the years 1759 and 1767, granted £21,500 for its improvement. In that year an Act was obtained, 1 Geo. IV., c. 52, for the Improvement of the Port and Harbour of Cork, and appointing twenty-four commissioners to control and superintend the same : under the powers vested in them by this act, they applied themselves, considering the extent of their means, assiduously to the improvement of the harbour, and particularly to deepening the bed of the river, which was tortuous and intricate, with many bars, shoals, and uneven soundings, and so shallow between Passage and Cork, that the greatest depth of water at the highest spring tides did not admit of vessels drawing more than ten feet coming up to the town. Little, however, could be effected under the old system of manual labour with ballast-boats, punts, &c., until, in 1826, they purchased a dredging-boat of

twelve-horse power, which had been previously employed in Waterford Harbour in effecting some important improvements there. Immediately on its arrival from thence, it was set to work, between Queen's Quay and Oliver Point, and in six years it raised 182,877 tons of mud and gravel, at a cost of about sixpence per ton, removing several bars and shoals, the most considerable of which was one near Penrose's Quay, nearly four feet high. In 1839 the Commissioners purchased at Belfast, for £1,850, another dredging vessel, which, although old, was of 20-horse power, and the deepenings were completed on this part of the river. In 1840 the larger boat was put to work on the flats at the South end of Mulagh Bank, and proceeded to remove this bar, on which there was not more than eighteen inches water at low tide. The first cut, on the South side, which was intended to make the channel straight, was eighty feet wide; three other cuts were subsequently effected, making the width of the channel over 330 feet, so that at low water there was a depth of ten feet throughout. The deepening of the river was continued at every requisite point, and from 1840 to 1849, both years inclusive, 1,277,502 tons of mud and gravel were raised at a cost of £25,966 16s. 7d., or at a fraction under 5d. per ton. It is to be regretted that the Commissioners were not enabled to procure, at an earlier date, powerful and effective dredging-machines, such as the five purchased by the Belfast Harbour Commissioners for £18,485 11s. 6d., which in one year (1849) raised 304,531 tons of mud and sand, at a cost of £2,096 8s. 3½d., or about 1½d. per ton.

During the progress of these operations, many obstructions occurred to render them less effective and more expensive than they otherwise would have been. The principal difficulty arose from the mischievous construction of some of the bridges above the confluence of the Lee, particularly the north bridge and the numerous weirs which impeded the course of the river and flooded the low grounds contiguous thereto, such as Hammond's Marsh, which frequently put the lives and property of the inhabitants of that district in considerable jeopardy. It appears that the Corporation had powers vested in it, by the charter of Henry VII., to preserve and improve the navigation, and that its jurisdiction extended to Carrigrohane Castle; it is, therefore, only surprising that such impe-

diments were allowed to be constructed or continued on it. No doubt it has legal power to remove these nuisances, and, until that is done, or some great improvement effected in them, the expense of dredging will be materially increased to keep the channel free. The other impediments arose from the Corporation enclosing the Slab, now called the Park, which consists of about 307 acres, well circumstanced for the site of those docks intended, in 1850, to be constructed on the south side of the river. The works of the Passage and Cork Railway, including the embankment of the Douglas Channel, contributed considerably to increase the expense of dredging ; and are likely, in the event of docks ever being made there, to interfere materially with their construction.

Previous to the Harbour Commissioners forming a dredging committee in 1848, the machines only worked six months in the year ; since then they have been kept constantly employed. In 1850 they purchased a new and powerful dredging vessel of forty-horse power, and now the channel throughout, from the deep water at Passage to the quays at Cork, has twenty one feet at ordinary spring tides, and seventeen feet at neap tides, and will admit the largest merchantmen to come up ; but as those sharp in the build cannot lie afloat at Cork quays or in the channel, and must strain by taking the ground, a wet dock is absolutely necessary for their accommodation. The Commissioners, therefore, applied to Parliament for an Act to enable them to construct docks on both sides of the river ; that on the north side to consist of a floating dock of from six to eight acres, adjoining the terminus of the Great Southern and Western Railway, to cost £80,000 ; to be entered by a lock with two gates, forty-five feet wide, and 180 feet long, and to contain eighteen feet of water ; the depth over the sill to be eighteen feet and a half at high, and six feet at low water, and to be capable of accommodating from sixty to eighty square-rigged vessels of an average size. On the south side it was proposed at a cost of £120,000 to construct a tidal basin, with a pair of single gates, and an inner dock, the entrance to be seventy feet wide, which would admit the largest steamer yet built ; the area of the basin to be 5 A. 3 R. 29 P. Graving docks to be formed at the south-east angle ; one of them to be 300 feet long, 90 feet wide, and 40 feet at bottom ; another dock of

six acres at the west end of the tidal basin, to be connected with it by a lock of the same proportion as on the north side, and the draft of water to be the same. Notwithstanding it was evident that the large sums of money expended for the last twenty-four years in improving the upper part of the harbour, and particularly in deepening the channel from Passage, for the admission of vessels of large burden, up to Cork, would have been a perfect waste, if accommodation was not provided for these vessels on their reaching their destination, and that a suitable floating dock was the only means of affording it, yet several of the ship-owners, who had been originally the greatest advocates for the construction of docks, had now changed their minds, and with others, at Queenstown and Passage, more personally and deeply interested, petitioned the Admiralty against the proposed bill. The consequence was, that an inquiry took place in February, 1850, at Cork, before Captain John Washington, R. N., Admiralty-Inspector, when the promoters, who were represented on the occasion by Colonel Beamish and the late Mr. John Gould, clearly established the principle of their bill, and the necessity that existed for carrying its provisions into effect. On this inquiry, the Bill was principally opposed by Mr. Philip Scott, of Queenstown, and Mr. William Brown, jun., of Passage; the former contended that the docks should be made at Queenstown, if the directors of the Great Southern and Western Railway could be induced to extend their terminus thence, a distance of fifteen miles. If such a proposition had been made twenty-five years earlier, before the Harbour Commissioners had expended such large sums in deepening the river, or a railway had been made from Passage to Cork, it might have been rationally entertained, and, no doubt, Queenstown would have been a desirable place for docks, where shipping of the largest tonnage could be at once accommodated. This project, however, appears not to have been yet abandoned; the line is surveyed, and the projectors intend applying immediately to Parliament for a bill to carry it into effect. Mr. Brown, who stated that he had expended £100,000 on his graving dock, at Passage, had some reason to complain of the construction of such docks on the south; but none, whatever, of the floating dock on the north side of the river, there being no docks of the kind then at Passage. As well might individuals, interested in

docks or wharfs at Gravesend, have complained of the formation of the London and St. Katharine's, as those at Queenstown or Passage, of the proposed floating docks at Cork, which, if there is water to admit vessels of the largest size, is unquestionably the place where they should be established, and the graving docks at Passage would find ample employment in building and repairing ships, for which the place is so admirably adapted. Notwithstanding that this was the course which should have been pursued, the promoters of the Cork Harbour Improvement Bill of 1850, from the opposition they experienced, and the increased expense it was likely to entail on them, abandoned it altogether. The Great Southern and Western Railway Company have, however, obtained a bill to form a floating dock on the north side of the river, convenient to its terminus in Cork, which is now in progress of construction, and will cover about four acres of ground.

Substantial and commodious quays were also erected at Cork, which cost, since 1825, upwards of £150,000; they occupy, in length, 5,047 feet on the North, and 6,370 feet on the South Channel: both are composed of cut limestone. The foundations are laid two to four feet under low water ordinary spring tides. Above the bridges not used by shipping, there are on the North Channel 4,186 feet of cut, and 3,756 feet of rubble stone quays, with three feet of parapet. The navigation wall, along the park, is 3,700 feet long of cut stone, and 3,300 feet of dry rubble wall. The total length of the quays is 19,359 feet, and the navigation wall 7,000 feet. The foundations, particularly of the quays used by shipping, have not been laid at a sufficient depth, and the bed of the river, when fully deepened, will be considerably lower, and is likely to endanger a portion of the walls, which may, in dredging, be approached too closely. Whether this defect arose from the Harbour Commissioners not originally intending to make the channel as deep as it is at present, or that it proceeded from a parsimony, too obvious in many instances, connected with these improvements, and which, no doubt, the Commissioners were obliged to adopt, to meet the superficial and confined ideas of those who could not comprehend how superior accommodation was to produce extended trade and increased revenue without additional taxation,—such persons should carefully read the history of Belfast in this work,

and they will find what unanimity and confidently intrusting the Harbour Commissioners with extensive powers effected there in a few years. Although they contracted a debt amounting to £413,076 all of which is still due, yet the security is considered as good as that of the Government, and has been obtained at 4 and 5 per cent. interest; and, notwithstanding that the harbour dues are double those of Cork, there is no apprehension that the trade of the port will fall off from that circumstance. Had similar powers been vested in the Cork Harbour Commissioners by the Act 1 Geo. IV., c. 52, which would have enabled them to raise money on the security of the Harbour Revenues, there can be no doubt whatever that a saving of £50,000 would have been effected, and the protracted improvements, including the docks, long since finished.

The Harbour Commissioners make up their accounts annually in August; the revenue of the Harbour is derived from rates on goods inwards and outwards, tonnage dues at 2½d. on vessels from Foreign or British ports, and ¾d. per ton, and in some few instances 1d., on coasters, profits on ballast and other minor sources. For the year ending August, 1854, the particulars of the receipts and expenditure were as follows:—

RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURE.	
Cash on hand, August 1853	£404 12 10	Paid for Dredging and otherwise Improving the River and Quays	£26,382 12 3
Rates on Goods exported and imported	8,021 17 1	Salaries of Officers, Rent, Rates, and Collecting Dues ...	1,881 3 9
Tonnage Dues received at Cork	£3,594 3 4	Blackrock Light	57 16 3
Do. at Queens-town	1,595 5 7	Repairing Damage of Quays, &c., by the late flood	2,365 9 1
	5,189 8 11	Certificates (a portion of the Debt) paid	2,657 10 0
Profits on Ballast	784 19 4	Interest on Certificates (a portion of the Debt still due)	778 10 0
Entry and Cocket	198 12 1	Paid for Tug-boat ...	461 11 1
Sundries	135 2 2	Cash on hand	150 0 0
	£14,734 12 5		£14,734 12 5

In 1850 the receipts were £10,145 10s. 11d.; and the expenditure was £11,005 1s., which, however, included £1,743 15s. paid on account of the expense of the dock bill. For the year ending August, 1853, the receipts were £12,296 2s. 9d.; and the expenditure £9,524 14s. 9d., and £2,671 19s. 4d., a portion of debt paid off; being an increase in the three years of £2,150 11s. 10d. in its revenue.

In 1854 the receipts were £14,329 19s. 7d., being an increase on the former year of £2,023 16s. 10d. The expenditure was £11,927 2s. 5d., which, however, included £2,365 9s. 1d. caused by the flood, and £461 11s. 1d. for a tug-boat. Certificates were also paid off to the extent of £2,657 10s. The liabilities of the Commissioners only now amount to £19,645 18s. 6d., a sum perfectly insignificant, considering the immense outlay and vast improvements that have taken place in this harbour.

Manufactures.—Cork formerly manufactured woollen cloth, baize, camlets, and serge, also linen sheetings and canvas. The suburb of Blackpool was especially engaged in these pursuits, as well as in wool-combing, spinning, and dyeing; all of which continued to prosper until the Union protecting duties expired, when they gradually declined. Messrs. Lane and Co., however, continued for twenty-five years after that event to manufacture, in their mills at Riverstown, the clothing for the army quartered in Ireland. Woollens and linens, however, have been in a great measure superseded by leather; and in 1840 there were 48 tan-yards in Cork, principally in the Blackpool district. Sir William Hackett, Messrs. Daniel Murphy and Son, and Hegarty Brothers, are extensively engaged in this business. Some vestige of the woollen trade still lingers here; Mr. A. Nicolls fabricates at his factory, Glanmire, some fine specimens of woollen cloth; at Middleton, Messrs. Cogan and Co. manufacture flannel and blankets; and Messrs Mahony and Brothers are extensively engaged in spinning worsted and woollen yarn, in which 200 boys and girls are employed; but they are destitute of enterprise, and make no exertion to introduce the weaving of woollen cloth, for which the south is so admirably adapted. As late as 1823, there was sold, in the markets of Clonakilty and Bandon, brown linens to the amount of £2,000 weekly; and a remnant of the trade still exists. A

considerable quantity of linen is bleached by Messrs. Thorley and Sons at their works at Glanmire and Riverstown, which are the most extensive in the south of Ireland. The old-established and respectable house of Messrs Thomas Lyons and Co., whose factory is in the same neighbourhood, exports largely, both bleached and brown linens, to Great Britain, America, and the Colonies. The ladies of the Charitable Clothing Society first gave an impetus to the manufacture of Cork gingham, in which Messrs. Daniel Coakley and John O'Connell have a considerable business, as well as in checks; and Mr. D. Magrath, in silk lustrés. Messrs. Arnotts manufacture silk nets, polka jackets (of which they export largely to England and America), crotchet lace, embroidered vests, and worked muslin; and including those making shirts, must give employment to at least 1,000 persons. Messrs. Joyce and Co. have also a large shirt-making factory. In the Cork Industrial and other schools, all the pupils are employed in embroidering muslin and other fancy work; which has made a great and beneficial change in the circumstances of the humbler classes. In 1841 there were 7 large distilleries, which paid on an average each £2,000 a week duty; in 1845 they declined to 3, and in 1850 they increased to 5: their consumption is estimated at 200,000 barrels of grain annually. There are 5 breweries, one of these, Messrs. Beamish and Crawford's, on a most extensive scale; Messrs. Lane and Murphy's are next in importance. There are 7 iron and 2 steel and brass foundries, 5 spade and shovel manufactories, 2 ship-building yards, independent of those at Passage and Queenstown. Messrs. Leckey and Beale, in 1845, built the cutter-yacht *Chase* for Mr. Thomas Pim, which was the first iron vessel launched at Cork; since then they have built a number of fine iron steamers of large tonnage. The Cork Steam Ship Company's yard is very extensive: on the premises are departments for plumbers and joiners, and also a foundry, where the boilers and machinery are constructed. In 1853 the *Cormorant* iron screw steamer, 743 tons, was built here, and several others of larger tonnage previously. Cork is greatly indebted to Mr. Eben Pike, for establishing this fine ship-building concern, which now employs 370 men and boys. Several large establishments are employed in curing beef, pork, bacon, hams, and lard. The trade in gloves has increased, and the

make so improved that they now sell as Limerick gloves. Cutlery is manufactured here to some extent, and is very superior to that imported from England ; Bradford's razors have been celebrated over the globe. There are vinegar, acid, and mineral water distilleries ; rope walks, salt works, tobacco, snuff, glue, starch, blacking, hat, soap, and candle manufactories ; with the latter article, Cork formerly almost exclusively supplied the West Indies. The snuff made by Messrs. James Lambkin and Co. is highly esteemed, and considered even superior to Lundy Foot's. There are 2 carriage factories, one of them by Mr. R. W. Edden, the inventor of the 4-wheeled car. The manufacture of feathers employs 200 persons by Messrs. C. and J. O'Sullivan, and Booth, and Fox ; both import largely from St. Petersburg, the greatest mart for them, and their home trade is very considerable. At Drepsey and Glenville are Mr. Greer's extensive paper mills. Canvas was formerly extensively manufactured at Cork, but latterly it has been supplied with it from Liverpool and Scotland. Lord Fermoy, formerly one of the county members, who has made great exertions to introduce the cultivation of flax into the south, by importing seed direct from Riga, and erecting scutching mills on his estate, at Trabolgan, near Queenstown, with a view to re-establish flax spinning, which was originally introduced here in 1805, when there were 212 spindles at work on it. The government gave a bounty of 30s. a spindle, which was subsequently withdrawn, and the manufacture ceased, until revived in Belfast, in 1828, with all its present important results.

Trade and Commerce.—The commerce of Cork, although of ancient date, was not very considerable until about the year 1633, when butter, which has now become its principal article of export, was first shipped in firkins, secured with wood hoops, bound with twigs ; and about the same period, the export of cattle being prohibited, the Cork merchants commenced curing beef, and packing it in barrels coopered in the same manner ; but subsequently, a portion of the hoops were of iron. The annual average export of beef for three years, ending in 1745, was 92,950 barrels ; and of butter, 84,105 cwts. ; and for nineteen years, ending in 1773, the beef had increased to 291,970 barrels, and the butter to 120,000 cwts, annually. The average number of fat cows and oxen slaughtered

here, between August and January, every season, was estimated at 100,000. The British Navy drew its sole supply of beef and butter from hence, and the remainder was shipped to the Colonies in North America, the West Indies, and the ports of France, Spain, and Portugal. The other articles of export were hides, tallow, wool, woollen yarn, camlets, serges, soap, candles, glue, herrings, &c. ; the average value was estimated at £1,100,190. During the last general war, the contracts for supplying the British Navy with provisions were principally made up here ; they were generally taken by the late Mr. Daniel Callaghan, sen., in conjunction with Sir Charles Flower, Messrs. Jordan and Shaw, and Thomas Rowcroft, of London. Although Mr. Callaghan commenced in Cork originally as a cooper, on a small scale, by these and other successful operations he realized a large fortune, and his sons were subsequently representatives of the City for more than twenty years. The curing of beef has diminished considerably since the peace ; whereas, the trade in butter has gone on year after year increasing. In 1806 the export was 160,000 cwts., in 1835 it was 279,000 firkins or about 209,250 cwts. ; for the year ending August 1850 it was 340,826 firkins, and in 1853 it had increased to 345,258 firkins. Formerly, at all the ports and markets throughout the kingdom butter inspectors were appointed under an Act of Parliament, whose inspection determined the quality ; but about thirty years ago, this Act was repealed, and purchasers had to exercise their own judgment on the quality of butter as well as on other articles. The Cork butter merchants, however, adhered to the old usage of inspection, and the public weigh-house has been continued under a weigh-master, and a sub-committee of export merchants and butter buyers, who appoint the inspectors, scalesmen, and other officers ; and this system has worked well, as the character of the butter stands deservedly high, and the quantity received at the weigh-house since then has considerably increased, and its export is greater than that of any other port in Ireland, and it has exclusively the trade in pickled butter to the West Indies and other warm climates. Formerly, the pork cured here was confined to navy and mess characters ; but more recently, the breed of pigs having been much improved in the south, bacon and India pork have been made up in Cork to equal Belfast or Waterford. This

trade, however, has been much affected by opening the supply of the Colonies to foreign competition ; previous thereto, Newfoundland alone took 30,000 barrels of mess pork, annually, from Ireland ; but is now supplied principally from the United States. Since the failure of the potatoe crop in 1846, pork has not been cured to the same extent ; in fact, the esculent has rated too high to admit of feeding pigs with it as formerly. The war with Russia, however, and a Government contract, being declared in 1854, for 42,000 tierces of beef, and 65,000 tierces of pork, at about £9 15s. a tierce, have given animation once more to the provision trade ; and the potatoe crop of 1854 being large and free from disease, and the pig an animal quickly fattened, the Irish farmers are now realizing enormous prices for their pork. Previous to 1835, Cork exported nearly 20,000 barrels of herrings annually, being the only place that this fish could be cured and packed to stand a warm climate ; but the shippers in Scotland having allured some of the Cork packers there, they monopolized the foreign trade, and herrings and dry fish are now articles of import. The Irish Railway Commissioners estimated the value of the exports of Cork, in 1835, at £2,909,846, and of the imports at £2,751,684. For the year ending August, 1853, the principal articles of export were 340,884 firkins, and 8,748 half firkins of butter ; 3,389 tierces and 9,403 barrels of beef and pork ; 12,822 bales of bacon ; 794 hogsheads of hams ; 17,768 pigs ; 13,204 sheep ; 3,816 cows and calves ; 16,186 boxes of eggs ; 11,363 barrels of wheat ; 243,080 barrels and cwts. of oats and oatmeal ; 33,359 barrels of barley ; 31,724 bags of flour ; 43,296 quarters of Indian corn ; 33,446 boxes of soap ; 1,228 packages of leather ; 19,950 barrels of gunpowder, &c., &c. The imports consisted of 3,790 hogsheads, 447 tierces, 2,840 barrels, and 13,599 bags of sugar ; 1,184 hogsheads and tierces of refined sugar ; 7,491 chests and 1,146 half-chests of tea ; 1,543 tierces and bags of coffee ; 3,070 bags and barrels of saltpetre ; 137 pipes, 444 hogsheads, 564 quarter casks, and 121 cases of wine ; 2,668 tons of bark and valonia ; 36,064 hides ; 2,880 bales of leather ; 432 hogsheads of tobacco ; 4,925 tons of salt ; 1,264 barrels of herrings ; 450 tons of dry fish ; 922 casks of tallow ; 933 boxes and 17,020 half boxes of soap ; 2,280 tons of guano ; 856 bags and pockets of hops ; 240,536

quarters of wheat ; 274,326 quarters of Indian corn ; 26,654 quarters of barley ; 13,421 barrels of flour ; 7,950 tons of bar, 592 tons of pig, and 416 tons of iron castings ; 1,796 boxes of tin ; 1,140 crates of glass ; 1,496 tons of slates ; 2,668 barrels of tar, pitch, and rosin ; 296 tons of hemp. Timber and deals from British America and the Baltic are imported in large quantities ; and from Great Britain, coal, and a number of other articles too numerous to insert here ; but almost every article of British manufacture may be included among them. Cork formerly exported camlets, serges, and other woollen goods, beef, pork, and butter, to the colonies and foreign ports ; but all have long since ceased, with the exception of a moderate quantity of the latter article. A considerable portion of the imports comes direct from foreign ports, such as wine from France, Portugal, and the Mediterranean—but since 1835 there has been a considerable decrease in it ; sugar and coffee from the West Indies ; tallow, hemp, flaxseed, tar and pitch, from Russia ; guano from South America ; bark and valonia from the Mediterranean ; and there have been some cargoes of tea from Canton ; but a great portion of such commodities comes from British ports. From 1835 to 1846, the export of wheat to Great Britain was very considerable ; but since then it has become more an article of import, and large quantities of it, as well as Indian corn, are now imported from Egypt, the Levant, and until within the last year from Odessa. Cork Harbour has been long frequented by vessels, calling there for orders as to their destination ; since the famine of 1846 the tonnage of vessels of that description has quadrupled. For the five years ending in 1844, it was 270,310 tons ; and for the five years ending 1849, 1,025,884 tons ; increase 755,574 tons. A very general impression exists, that if vessels sharp in the build and requiring deep water, could lie afloat and discharge their cargoes with safety and at moderate expense, many of those floating cargoes which remain for weeks waiting a market, would be at once warehoused here. The jetty about to be constructed at Queenstown, and the floating dock in progress at Cork, will soon demonstrate the correctness of this opinion. The following tables from official returns show the trade of Cork from 1840, to 5th January, 1854:

CORK.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of this Port, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected thereon for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending with the five preceding years.

Years ending 5th January	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Customs' Duties Collected £																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																						
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These Tables show, that during the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered this port from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 576,914 tons, of which 142,492 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 2,734,260 tons: total Inwards 3,310,174 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 426,321 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 90,916 tons were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastways 2,017,632 tons: total Outwards 2,448,953 tons. There were registered belonging to this port 3,882 vessels of 408,631 tons, and the Customs' duties collected therein were £2,805,683. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade Inwards of 244,446 tons, of which 117,592 tons were Foreign Shipping; and on that with Great Britain, and Coastways 172,850 tons: total increase Inwards 417,246 tons. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 156,021 tons, of which 76,612 tons were Foreign shipping; and on the trade with Great Britain and Coastways 169,190 tons: total increase Outwards 324,281 tons. The vessels registered for the last five years, over the five preceding years, were 170 and 60,160 tons; but the actual increase of 1850 over 1845 was 8 vessels of 8,066 tons, and in the Customs' duties £54,291. The increase in the number of vessels was 1521 per cent., and the proportion of Foreign shipping 234 per cent.; on the British and Coasting 161 per cent.; the registered shipping 307 per cent.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows:—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tn.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Trade. Brit. Tn.	Foreign Trade. Tn.	Brit. and Coasting Tn.	Foreign Trade. Brit. Tn.	Foreign Trade. Tn.	Brit. and Coasting Tn.		
1851..	47,214	44,900	289,633	26,017	38,683	234,705	51,702	246,463
1852..	50,164	50,912	279,487	36,095	50,507	193,214	50,778	236,581
1853..	54,068	37,938	235,699	29,199	36,439	186,610	50,165	231,395
1854..	43,962	51,506	274,667	27,113	52,574	196,098	50,363	237,928

The Foreign trade, therefore, for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 156,814 tons, and the British and Coasting 524,338 tons. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 187,678 tons, and the British and Coasting 472,701 tons: being an increase on the former of 30,864 tons, and a decrease on the latter of 51,637 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 157,639 tons, and the British and Coasting 422,309 tons: being a decrease on the former of 30,049 tons, and on the latter 50,392 tons. In 1854 the Foreign trade was 175,155 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 470,765 tons: being an increase on the former of 17,516 tons, and on the latter 48,456 tons. In the registered shipping there was a decrease in 1854 as compared with 1851, of 3 vessels and 1,439 tons; and in the customs' revenue of £8,535. The registered shipping of 1854 consisted of 409 vessels and 50,363 tons, of which 23 were steamers of 5,041 tons, and including their engine-rooms 7,354 tons; there were 9 of these iron built, and 3 of them screw steamers; 10 of the largest, measuring 4,246 tons of all descriptions, were owned by the Cork Steam Shipping Company; and the other 13 by Sir R. Musgrave, Messrs. Reeves, Ingram, Denny, Dawson, and Sugrue. They are engaged in the London, Liverpool, and Bristol trades. The number of persons employed in collecting the customs' revenue of this port in 1849, was 265, whose united salaries amounted to £9,279 7s. 8d.

The Public Buildings are—The Commercial Buildings on the South Mall erected in 1813, by 129 proprietors, who subscribed £100 each. The Chamber of Commerce, in Patrick Street, formed by seceders from the original proprietary of the Commercial Buildings.

The County Court House, erected in 1835, a spacious edifice, with a handsome portico of eight columns, cost £20,000. The Corn Exchange, built by trustees, under the 3rd Geo. IV., c. 79, is 460 feet in length, by 330 in breadth; cost, including that of Anglesey Bridge, near which it is situated, £17,460; Parliament granted £4,615 towards the bridge, and the Commissioners of Public Loans lent £10,000; the site was given free by two proprietors, who had property convenient, and who also contributed £2,500 towards their erection. The Mansion House, built by the celebrated Ducart, cost £3,793, now converted into an Hospital. The Bishop's Palace, at Gill Abbey. The Athenæum, the erection of which is just completed. The Cork Loyal Institution, founded in 1803 by subscription, for diffusing knowledge and the application of science to the general purposes of life. In 1807 it obtained a parliamentary grant of £2,000 per annum, which was withdrawn in 1831, and in lieu thereof the proprietary got the old custom-house, subject, however, to a yearly rent of £65; it has a museum and library containing 6,000 volumes; a school of design, to which the department of practical arts contributes £500, and the Corporation £200, annually; the latter is privileged to nominate twenty-five free students. The Cork Library, established in 1790, contains a valuable collection of more than 10,000 volumes of choice works. The Scientific and Literary Society, founded in 1834, consists of 90 members and several subscribers, who pay 10s. per annum; the Cuverian Society, formed in 1835, is in the same building. The Society of Arts, established in 1815, for instruction in sculpture and painting; George the Fourth presented it with a valuable collection of casts, which were transferred to the Royal Institution. The Young Men's Literary Institution. The Mechanics' Institute, founded in 1824, has a library containing 1,500 volumes, a reading-room, a school of design, and one for instruction in the arts and sciences; it has upwards of 200 members. The School of Medicine and Surgery, founded in 1811. The Custom House, erected in 1818. The County Club House, on the South Mall, built in 1826, cost £4,000. The Cork Union, and Tuckey's Club Houses. The Military Barracks, on very elevated ground, north-east of the city, erected in 1806, can accommodate 156 officers and 2,000 men, with stabling for 232 horses, and

an hospital for 130 invalids. There are two Infirmaries, two Lying-in Hospitals, two Houses of Refuge for Destitute Females, and a Foundling Hospital. The County and City Prisons, and the House of Correction. The Lunatic Asylum, which admits 446 patients, was opened in 1851, and cost £4,570. The Union Workhouse, opened in 1840, to accommodate 5,250 inmates, and an auxiliary for 1,750 more; the union is situated in the city and county of Cork, and contains an area of 169,732 acres, and a population of 168,576 persons, in twenty-eight electoral divisions, represented by forty-nine elected and forty-nine *ex-officio* guardians; the property rated to the poor in 1852 was valued at £267,529; expenditure £21,925 13s. 3d.: the rate in aid, levied in 1851 and 1852, was £2,445 19s., and none issued for its support. The Railway Stations—the Great Southern and Western at Blackpool, where the engineers and workmen connected with this Railway have established a reading room; the Cork and Bandon, at Albert Quay; and the Cork, Blackrock, and Passage, near the City Park.

The Houses of Religious Worship are—The Protestant cathedral, six parish churches, and two chapels of ease. The Catholic cathedral, and four parish churches. An Augustinian, Dominican, Carmelite, Presentation, and two Franciscan monasteries. An institution of St. Vincent de Paul, four convents of the Sisters of Mercy, Charity, and Presentation in the city, and one of Ursulines at Blackrock, with a chapel attached to each. Two Presbyterian, one Independent, four Methodist, one Baptist, and one Society of Friends meeting-houses. The church of St. Finbar is the Protestant cathedral, and is of very ancient date, supposed to be founded by Bishop O'Muggin in the twelfth century; it was rebuilt in 1735, and, to defray the expense, one shilling a ton duty on coals was exacted for five years, from 1736: an impost on coals appears to have been a favourite mode of rebuilding and repairing the Protestant churches of Cork, although only about one-sixth of the population was of that persuasion; Christ Church being erected in 1716, by a tax of one shilling a ton on all coals imported for fifteen years from that date. The Church of St. Peter is the most ancient in the city. The old Church of St. Mary Shandon was

destroyed in the siege of 1690, and the new edifice erected in 1696. The Church of St. Ann Shandon is a large edifice, built by subscription in 1772; a chapel of ease, in connexion with this church, is in the Brickfields. The church of St. Paul, built in 1726, is a handsome structure in the Grecian style of architecture; and there is also a free church. The Catholic division consists of four parishes; in the north parish, which is the bishop's benefice, is the Catholic cathedral, a spacious structure: connected with this church are two chapels of ease, in Brickfields and Clogheen. The Church of St. Patrick was opened for divine service in 1836. The Church of St. Peter and St. Paul is a mensal of the Bishops, and was built in 1786. In the Catholic church of St. Finbar is some fine sculpture by Hogan, a Cork artist. The monasteries and convents have chapels attached thereto. The Dominican monastery is built on the site of Shandon castle, but the church of this order is situated on Pope's Quay. The Capuchins, a branch of the Franciscan order, have two churches, both erected by distinguished men; that in Blackman's Lane by the late Dr. Arthur O'Leary, and the splendid structure on Charlotte Quay by the very Rev. Theobald Mathew, the apostle of temperance. The Presbyterian and other dissenting houses of worship are handsome and convenient edifices.

Educational Institutions are—The Queen's College, founded in 1849, at Gill Abbey. The National schools, including the Lancasterian, and those in the workhouse and gaols, affording in 1853 instruction to 3,192 males and 4,743 females, in the city; and at Blackrock, Glanmire, and other contiguous places, to 962 males and 1,040 females—total on the rolls, 9,937 pupils; the average daily attendance for the half-year ending 30th September, 1853, was 4,657. A Deaf and Dumb school. The Christian Brothers, 10 schools, where 1,340 male children are educated. The nuns of the Presentation Convents, whose order was founded by Miss Honora Nagle, in 1777, educate 1,600 poor girls, a portion of whom are clothed by subscriptions of the citizens, and 200 are provided with a daily meal; all are taught plain sewing and fancy work, which produces them from 2s. to 6s. a week each. The Sisters of Mercy educate 400 girls, and the Ursulines at Blackrock 200 more, all of whom are instructed in similar

industrial pursuits, and the two first take no support from the National Board; attached to St. Mary's Industrial School, is a house for orphan girls. The Adelaide School, superintended by a number of young ladies, who teach young females lace-making, &c. The St. Patrick's Orphan Asylum, superintended by the Catholic clergy, where 20 boys and 20 girls are educated, clothed, and apprenticed. The Franciscan and Josephine Sunday schools, where 1,000 persons are instructed; and a night school for the instruction of apprentices and labouring boys. The schools exclusively Protestant, are the Blue Coat Hospital, formerly a Catholic priory, founded for lepers in 1295, where 22 boys, sons of reduced Protestant citizens, are educated and maintained. The Green Coat Hospital, where 40 boys and 28 girls are educated. Dean's charity schools, where 30 boys and 30 girls are taught and a portion clothed. St. Nicholas and St. Mary Shandon parochial schools, where 106 boys and 124 girls are instructed, and a portion of the boys clothed. A Free school on the east side of the Cathedral, where 20 boys are educated; it contains a small library of theological works. The Diocesan school in 1852 had 30 pupils, of whom 12 were taught gratis. The Presbyterian school, in Prince's Street. A day school for girls and infants, and where 15 inmates are supported, by the Wesleyan Methodists. The Masonic Orphan Asylum, where 40 children are instructed and apprenticed. In 1841 there were 5,702 boys and 4,817 girls in the rudimental schools of the city; and in those where the pupils were charged for their education, 680 males and 468 females—total 11,667; but the number must have increased considerably since then.

The amount of postage, excise, and stamps collected in Cork, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, was:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Postage.....	£7,089	£7,224	£7,903	£8,618
Excise.....	219,732	220,693	226,991	248,773
Stamps	23,689	24,232	23,723	25,287

The Bank of Ireland, the Provincial and National Banks of Ireland, have branches of their establishments here. The Savings Bank, in 1853, had 8,016 depositors; whose lodgments amounted to £292,739 at £2 17s. per cent. There are four newspapers published

here—the *Southern Reporter* daily, *Cork Constitution*, and *Examiner*, three times a week ; and *General Advertiser*, every Saturday.

Cork has given birth to many distinguished men, who have contributed liberally to literature and science. One of these, Arthur Murphy, was most successful as a writer of tragedy, while O'Keefe delighted many an audience with his comic effusions. James Barry, the celebrated painter, a man alike distinguished for his genius, eccentricity, and independent spirit, was born in Water Lane, Blackpool. Arthur O'Leary, whose learning, eloquence, and brilliant wit not only charmed his contemporaries, but is still the admiration of posterity ; the Rev. Thomas England, patriotic and learned himself, was his biographer. Thos. Crofton Croker, author of "The Fairy Legends," &c. Dr. Maginn, and the Rev. Gentleman who has written so facetiously as Father Prout, and composed "The Bells of Shandon." W. Hastie, tutor to King Radmah, to whose exertions the present civilized state of Madagascar may be attributed ; General O'Leary, the South-American patriot ; Barry, the tragedian, who built the Cork Theatre. In sculpture—John Hogan, whose genius in that art established his reputation, if not as the first sculptor in Europe, has placed him at least in the very first rank of that profession ; although not born in this city, he may be fairly claimed by it, as his father in 1800, when Hogan was only two months old, left Tallow, and settled permanently in Cork ; James Heffernan and P. McDowell, whose studies are of the same order ; and although last, not least in importance as a benefactor to mankind, the Rev. Theobald Mathew, who, like Hogan, was not born in Cork, Thomastown, in the county Kilkenny, having the honour of being his birth-place ; but Cork was the theatre where his early experiments to reform the inebrious habits of his countrymen were successfully exerted. One of his first practical acts was of great utility to Cork—the conversion of the Botanical gardens, a short distance from the city, into a cemetery, in imitation of *Père le Chaise* in Paris, and the first of the kind established in the United Kingdom. Since then he had not only the proud prerogative of converting a whole nation to temperance, but his advocacy of this doctrine was personally extended to Great Britain and America.

The first object of importance commanding attention on leaving Cork Harbour, and steering north, is the Island of Ballycotton, about twelve miles distant. In 1851 a lighthouse, much needed, was

erected here, $51^{\circ} 49' 30''$ N., $7^{\circ} 59'$ W. ; the tower, which displays a revolving red belt below the lantern, seen at a distance of nineteen miles, is sixty feet high, and the point on which it is placed rises 170 feet above the level of the sea, giving the light an elevation of 230 feet. In Ballycotton Bay there is capital anchorage, and in the passage from Cork to Dublin there is not so safe a refuge in a gale of wind. A harbour should be constructed here, which would not cost more than about £15,000, and for that trifling sum accommodation would be afforded to 400 ships of the largest size. The want of such a harbour has been productive of the loss of life and property to an enormous extent. Passing Capel island, the entrance to Youghal harbour, formed by the Blackwater, is made. This noble river has its source in the Kerry mountains, and, after a devious course in which it waters Millstreet, Mallow, Fermoy, Lismore, and Cappoquin, discharges itself here with great force and rapidity into St. George's Channel ; on the west side of the harbour, within the bar, there is a lighthouse, seventy-eight feet high, $51^{\circ} 56' 34''$ N., $7^{\circ} 50' 33''$ W., which displays a fixed stone light, seen at a distance of six miles.

YOUGHAL is a parliamentary borough, comprising an area of 504 acres. In 1841 the population was 9,939, and in 1851 it decreased to 7,410 persons. Previous to the union, it sent two members to the Irish, and is yet allowed to send one to the United parliament. It is at present represented by Isaac Butt, Esq., who in the first edition of this work was erroneously stated to be an Englishman, from the circumstance of the Member for Weymouth being also a Barrister, and of the same name. The Member for Youghal is, however, an Irishman, and is much distinguished at the Irish bar. The constituency in 1853 consisted of 149 rated occupiers, and 68 burgesses and freemen ; total 217. Although it is only a branch of the port of Cork, and its tonnage and customs' duties included therein, it is a place of respectable trade ; in 1835 its exports, consisting of grain, flour, bacon, lard, butter, cattle, and salmon, with which the Blackwater abounds, were estimated at £215,316 ; its imports, foreign, were timber—and from Great Britain, coal, colonial produce, and British manufactured articles, valued at £28,310. Its shallow

bar must be an impediment to its trade, as there is only a depth of twelve feet of water on it, except at high spring tides, when it rises to sixteen feet. The fishing district, which includes Dungarvan, extends from Ballyvoile-head to the east side of Ballywilliam cove, a distance of fifty-four miles; and in 1851 it had 574 registered vessels, employing 2,786 men and boys. Proceeding from Youghal, the Waterford coast is soon after made, and the light established in 1851 on Mine-head, $51^{\circ} 59' 33''$ N., $7^{\circ} 35' 8''$ W., distinguished; the tower, exhibiting an intermitting stone light, seen at a distance of twenty-two miles, is sixty feet high, and the elevation above the level of the sea 285 feet. Halwick head is next passed, and the entrance to Dungarvan harbour made. At Ballinacourty there is a pier for the protection of fishing vessels, and some years ago 1000 tons of fish were taken here annually. A lighthouse is now in construction at this point.

DUNGARVAN is situated on the Colligan river, and is a branch of the port of Waterford. It comprises an area of 8,499 acres, of which 392 are in the town. In 1841 it contained 1,231 houses, and 8,625 inhabitants; in 1851 there were only 1,070 houses, and 6,965 inhabitants; decrease 161 houses, and 1,660 persons. It sent two members to the Irish, and is still represented by one in the United parliament; its present representative is John Francis Maguire, Esq., of Cork; the constituency in 1853 consisted of 228 rated occupiers, and 75 of other qualifications—total, 303. Its trade is not extensive, probably owing to its shallow harbour, as vessels drawing more than eleven or twelve feet of water cannot come up to the quays. Its exports of grain, cattle, and butter, in 1835, were estimated at £69,486; and its imports, which consisted of timber, coal, and British manufactured articles, to £16,312. The Provincial and National Banks of Ireland have branches here. Brownhead and Tramore bay are next passed, and the entrance to Waterford Harbour presents itself.

WATERFORD HARBOUR is entered by a fine deep channel, $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles in width, between Dunmore on the west, and Hook Tower on the eastern or Wexford shore. On the pier head of Dunmore, there is a lighthouse, $52^{\circ} 9'$ N., $6^{\circ} 59' 30''$ W., forty-four feet high, which displays a red light towards the sea, and a bright light up the har-

hour, seen at a distance of eleven miles. The pier extends 800 feet into the sea, alongside of which there are from four to six fathoms of water, and forms a basin well sheltered and easy of access, with fifteen feet of water at the entrance, and eight at the extremity; these improvements, however, cost £108,286. On Hook tower, $52^{\circ} 7' 25''$ N., $6^{\circ} 55' 58''$ W., there is a fixed white light, at an elevation of 152 feet, and seen at a distance of sixteen miles. There is no bar at the entrance, but about five miles from thence there is a shoal, on which, at low water, there is only a depth of fourteen feet, while in the other parts of the channel there is upwards of twenty feet. This is the only obstruction to this noble harbour, and by powerful dredging machinery it could be removed, and ships of war, or the largest merchantman, could then enter at the lowest ebb tide. To effect this desirable object £20,000 are only required; and the Harbour Commissioners of Waterford and New Ross applied to the Lord Lieutenant in 1854, to assist them in procuring that sum from Government, to which they are entitled on national grounds, as it would render it a first-rate safety harbour, so much required on this part of the coast. About two miles north of this shoal, lies Duncannon fort, on the Wexford side of the channel, on the east side of which there are two fixed lights, $52^{\circ} 13' 13''$ N., $6^{\circ} 56'$ W., exhibited from the same tower, forty feet above the level of the sea, and seen at a distance of ten miles; and more recently another light has been placed on the north-east side, at an elevation of 128 feet, seen at a distance of sixteen miles. The fort is situated on a rock, and commands the entrance to the ports of Waterford and New Ross. It is adapted to mount forty-two pieces of cannon, and has barracks to accommodate ten officers and 160 men. Passage lies on the west side, where the royal yacht, with Queen Victoria on board, anchored on the night of the 4th of August, 1849, on her passage from Cork to Dublin. At Cheekpoint, higher up, the Suir and the Barrow form a junction, the latter river being previously joined above New Ross by the Nore. They are called the Three Sisters, from having their source in the Slieve Bloeme Mountain; and although they are widely dispersed in their course, their waters intermingle at this point, and form the estuary of Waterford harbour to the sea. The Suir is now entered, which leads to Waterford City, while the Barrow conducts, in a north-east direction, to New Ross.

WATERFORD.

WATERFORD is one of the most ancient maritime ports in Ireland. It was known A.D. 155 by the name of *Cuan-na-grian*, the harbour of the sun. Its present name is supposed to be a corruption from the Scandinavian of *Vader Fiord*, or the ford of the father. It is a county of a city, in the province of Munster, 52° 15' N., 7° 7' W., ninety-seven miles S.S.W. of Dublin, 111 N.E. of Cork, and eighty miles W. of Milford Haven. It comprises an area of 10,059 acres, of which 669 are in the city. In 1821 the population was 28,679; in 1831 it was 28,321. In 1841 and 1851 it was as follows :

Years.	Inhab.	HOUSES.		Total.	Males.	POPULATION.		Persons.
		Uninhab.	Bldg.			Females.		
1841 ...	2,978	153	19	3,150 ...	10,227	12,989		23,216
1851 ...	3,238	712	7	3,957 ...	11,257	14,040		25,297

Being an increase on the ten years of 807 houses, of which, however, 559 were on those uninhabited; and on the population 1,030 males, and 1,051 females; total increase, 2,081 persons; the females in 1851 exceeding the males by 2,783 persons, or 24½ per cent. The corporation, styled the mayor, aldermen, and burgesses of the Borough of Waterford, consists of ten aldermen, and thirty councillors, elected by the five wards, into which the city is now divided, viz., south, west, custom-house, tower, and centre wards. The mayor for 1854 was elected from the town-councillors. The borough returns two representatives to parliament, being favoured with one of the additional five members granted to Ireland by the Reform Act. By the 2nd Will. 4, c. 88, the franchise was extended to £10 householders; and the constituency in 1834 was 1,473; in 1849 it was 1,273. Under the Act of 13 and 14 Vic., c. 69, it declined to 1,135; and in 1853 it still further decreased to 1,124, of which 622 were rated occupiers, 462 freemen, and forty of other qualifications.

The present members are Thomas Meagher and Robert Keating, Esqs.; the former, a resident of Waterford, and the latter, of the county Tipperary. The income of the corporation in 1851 was £8,170; of which £1,755 was paid in salaries and pensions of municipal officers, £1,420 on public works, £617 in rents and taxes, and the residue in liquidating the corporation debt. This city is delightfully situated on the south bank of the Suir, which, in its course from its source, waters Thurles, Holycross, Cashel, Clonmel, and Carrick, and is a river of considerable magnitude when it reaches Waterford, where it is joined by a tributary stream, the John. It is admirably situated for commerce, from its proximity to the west coast of England; and although eighteen miles from the sea, the largest merchantmen can come up opposite the quays, which are decidedly the finest in Ireland, or probably in England, being a continuous line of 1,240 yards in length, and forty feet in width. There are only about twelve feet of water close to the quays, even in spring tides; but vessels drawing upwards of twenty feet lie afloat in the channel, and discharge or load their cargoes by means of floating stages, which rise and fall with the tide; and when the quays were erected or enlarged in 1705, it was a great mistake not to have extended them into deep water. At the western extremity it is united to the suburb of Ferrybank, in the county Kilkenny, by a wooden bridge, 832 feet long, by forty feet wide, supported by forty sets of oak piers on stone abutments. It was constructed, as well as those of Derry, Ross, and Wexford, by Mr. Cox, a native of Boston, United States, at a cost of £30,000, raised by shares of £100 each, £90 of which was paid up; and they were recently worth £170. It was opened in 1794; and the tolls produce about £4,000 per annum.

In 853 Waterford was first attacked by the Danes under Sitrick, who established a regal dynasty there, which continued to the Anglo-Norman invasion. Imar, one of their kings, in 995 devastated the county Kildare, and succeeded Auliffe in the occupation of Dublin. His son, Reginald, erected a castle on the quays in 1003, a portion of which is still perfect, and is called Reginald's Tower. It was held as a fortress by Strongbow, used as a mint in the reign of Edward IV., and converted into a police-barrack in 1819.

In 1038 Waterford was burnt by the King of Leinster, and again in 1088 by the Danes of Dublin. It is said the Danes of Waterford did not embrace Christianity until 1096 ; but it is probable, like those of Dublin, that it was at a much earlier date. It was then, however, formed into a see ; Malchus, the first bishop, being consecrated by Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury. The advance-guard of Strongbow's invading force, consisting of ten knights and seventy archers, under Raymond le Gros, so called from his great servulency, landed in this neighbourhood in May, 1170, and were soon after joined by Hervey de Montmorisco, or Montmorris, from Wexford. They intended intrenching themselves here until the main body arrived, and threw up a small fort, and seized on the cattle of the surrounding district. This so alarmed the inhabitants of Waterford, that they determined on attacking them before they were reinforced ; and with that intent, 1,600 undisciplined men marched out of the city towards the fort. Raymond, perceiving their disorderly approach, and holding such enemies in contempt, left his intrenched position and attacked them ; but they returned his charge with such vigour that he was obliged to regain it, and would, in all probability, have been forced to surrender, had he not driven out the cattle he had collected there on the assailants, which threw them into such disorder, that his small force obtained a decisive victory over them ; 500 of these are said to have been slain and 70 taken prisoners, among whom were some of the principal inhabitants ; and although there were large sums offered for their ransom, they were put to death in the most cruel manner by this ferocious barbarian. According to Cambrensis, his own historian, these unfortunate captives were brought to the rocks like men condemned, where their limbs were first broken, and then cast headlong into the sea. Thus in the very onset did the English invader who, according to the bulls of Popes Adrian and Alexander, was to civilize the wicked and barbarous Irish, lay the groundwork of that savage and atrocious system of warfare which was perpetuated through so many centuries with unmitigated fury. Notwithstanding this act of aggressive cruelty, this small force was allowed to remain unmolested for four months, until joined by Strongbow, from Milford Haven, with 200 knights and 1,000 archers, all chosen men,

who effected their landing on the eve of St. Bartholomew, in 1170. MacMurrrough, with his Irish forces and Anglo-Norman auxiliaries from Wexford, formed a junction with them, and an assault on the city of Waterford was determined on. The inhabitants had been reinforced by the neighbouring Irish chieftains, and, under Reginald, their king, were prepared for a vigorous defence. The assailants were twice repulsed, although led on by the redoubted Raymond. On the third assault, however, a breach was made, and the besiegers entered the city, which became a scene of indiscriminate slaughter. MacMurrrough now sent for his daughter Eva; and scarcely had the carnage ceased, when her ominous marriage with Strongbow was celebrated. Henry II. landed here in October, 1172, with 500 knights and 4,000 soldiers; Strongbow, as previously arranged, made a formal surrender of Waterford to the monarch, and did homage for his principality of Leinster. MacCarthy, Prince of Desmond, followed his example, and the inhabitants of Wexford tendered their submission with Fitzstephen as their prisoner, whom they charged with acts of the greatest atrocity. The monarch feigned displeasure, and ordered Fitzstephen to be imprisoned in Reginald's Tower, from which, however, he was soon after released. On his departure for Dublin, he placed a garrison in the city under Robert Fitzbernard and other knights, and it was soon after extended and surrounded with walls, and a charter granted to the inhabitants. In the predatory excursions made by the Anglo-Normans into the territories of the natives, the spoil collected was generally deposited here. Strongbow, however, having sustained a considerable defeat in Ossory, was shut up in this city, assailed by an imposing force from without, and the fear of an insurrectionary movement within. In this predicament he was relieved by Raymond, who arrived from England with 20 knights and 400 archers. Leaving Purcel governor of the city, they marched on Wexford with their united forces, and he, attempting to follow them by sea, was intercepted and slain by the inhabitants, who put his followers to the sword, with the exception of a few who took refuge in Reginald's Tower, where they defended themselves with great bravery. On Fitzandelm being appointed Lord Deputy, an assembly of the Irish clergy was held here, in which the bulls

of Popes Adrian and Alexander, granting the sovereignty of the island to Henry, were solemnly promulgated, and awful denunciations levelled against all those who should impeach or resist his authority. In 1179 Robert Le Poer was made governor of the city, and received a grant of the county Waterford, with the exception of the city and the Cantred of the Ostmen. In 1185, John, as Earl of Morton, with a retinue of 400 knights and 4,000 soldiers, landed here and established a mint; and after his accession to the throne, in 1206, he granted the city a charter with extensive privileges; and in 1211 he landed here again on his way to Dublin. In 1232 Henry III. granted this city a charter, in which mention is first made of the election of a mayor. In 1368 the Poers and O'Driscolls fitted out an armament to attack Waterford; but the mayor, supported by the sheriff and the prior of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem, sailed out to meet them, when a sanguinary conflict ensued, in which the Poers and O'Driscolls were victorious, but the leaders on both sides were slain. Edward III. made a gift of the cocket customs for ten years to the citizens to erect quays and rebuild the walls, which were in a dilapidated state; and for the same purpose Richard II. granted the duties and tolls on all goods brought into the city for sale. In October, 1395, this monarch arrived here with 4,000 men at arms and 30,000 archers, and remained in Ireland until the following shrove-tide; and in 1399 he again landed here, and after six days' stay proceeded to Kilkenny. In 1447 the city and county were granted to Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, then created Earl of Waterford. In 1460 O'Driscoll landed a considerable force at Tramore, which was joined by the Poers; the mayor and citizens attacked them at Ballymacdane, and gave them a signal defeat. O'Driscoll Oge and his six sons were made prisoners, and brought in triumph to Waterford. In the reign of Edward IV., a shipment made by the merchants here to Sluys, in Flanders, in preference to Calais, raised the question, "Was Ireland bound by English Acts of Parliament?" which was decided in the affirmative. In 1487, when Lambert Simnel laid claim to the throne, and was proclaimed in Dublin by the Lord Deputy Kildare, the citizens of Waterford, in defiance of his threats, preserved an unshaken

loyalty to Henry VII.; who, after the battle of Stoke, addressed them a letter of thanks. Sir R. Edgecombe, sent to Ireland by Henry to administer the oath of allegiance anew, was honourably entertained by the inhabitants. In 1492, the city, which had been attainted by the Earl of Kildare, was formally restored to all its rights and privileges. In 1497 the citizens again testified their fidelity to Henry by their resistance to the new pretender, Perkin Warbeck, whom they forced to retreat from before their walls with considerable loss; and for their gallantry on this occasion Henry extended to the city arms the motto—“*Urbo intacta manet Waterfordia*.” Henry VIII. presented the corporation a gilt sword and cap of liberty, to be borne before the mayor, which are still preserved. In 1588 Duncannon Fort was fortified in consequence of the anticipated descent of the Spaniards on that part of the coast. On James I. being proclaimed in Waterford, similar tumults occurred as at Cork; but the deputy, Mountjoy, having appeared before the city with an imposing force, the citizens, notwithstanding their avowed dislike, were obliged to swear allegiance to the monarch. In the civil war of 1641, this city was one of the first to espouse the cause of the confederate Catholics, who established their press in it, conducted by Bourke. In 1646, the hollow peace concluded between Charles I. and the Parliament was so unpopular, that when the heralds arrived from Dublin to proclaim it no one would show them the mayor's house; and after remaining three days they were dismissed, the inhabitants stating that the peace should have been first proclaimed at Kilkenny; this disposition was confirmed by the Pope's Nuncio and the Catholic clergy of the diocese then assembled in synod in this city. In 1649, Cromwell, having surprised Carrick, laid siege to Waterford. The city was well fortified, and General Farrell with 1,500 men reinforced the garrison; but Cromwell preferred investing it, to attempt taking it by assault. He had a large and efficient body of cavalry, which took possession of Passage, and cut off the communication between Waterford and the sea. General Farrell, expecting to be reinforced by Colonel Wogan, from Duncannon fort, marched out to dislodge them; but was driven back by a superior force despatched from the main body of the besieging army. The inhabitants could not be induced to put

confidence in Ormond, who had a considerable force in the neighbourhood, from his previous acts of treachery and deceit towards the confederates; and the consequence was, that when Cromwell, after losing 2,000 men, was obliged to raise the siege in disorder, no co-operation took place to harass him in his retreat. Early in the year following, Waterford was again invested by Ireton, who succeeded in getting possession of the city on the 25th of July; but the garrison held out in the citadel until the 10th of August, when it succeeded in obtaining favourable terms for the citizens, whose lives and properties were guaranteed; but the violence of the Cromwellian army could not be restrained, which was principally directed against the churches, works of art, and remains of antiquity; and not even the tombs of the dead escaped its barbarous mutilations. From this period to 1656 the corporation was superseded by military commissioners; and Catholics were prohibited from trading within or without the walls. While Colonel Leigh was governor, the Lord Deputy and council issued an order to apprehend all Quakers resorting to the city, and ship them forthwith to Bristol. At the Restoration, Richard Power was appointed governor of the county and city, and on the revival of the corporation the Catholic inhabitants petitioned Ormond to be admitted to the enjoyment of the franchise; but, instead of granting their request, he had an order in council passed to expel them from the city, although some had been previously re-admitted. James II., after his disgraceful retreat from the Boyne, took shipping here for France; and soon after Major-general Kirk summoned the city to surrender, which, after some negotiation, was agreed to—the garrison being allowed to march out with military honours and join a portion of James's army, then stationed at Mallow. The day after its evacuation William entered the city, and after his discomfiture at Limerick he embarked at this port, on the 5th of September, for England. In 1732, and again in 1744, serious riots occurred to prevent the exportation of corn; and on the latter occasion, the military having interfered, several lives were sacrificed. In 1798 this city took no part in the insurrection; but had the Wexfordians been successful at New Ross, no doubt they would have acquired an immense addition to their forces here.

Harbour Improvements.—In 1816 the Chamber of Commerce, which had been formed a year previously, obtained an Act, 56 Geo. III., c. 64, for deepening and otherwise improving the port and harbour. A dredging-vessel was purchased, and other arrangements made, to remove the obstructions to the navigation, particularly at a small island, two miles below the city, which divides the river into two channels; that called the Ford is the most direct, but it had only then a depth of two feet at low water, while the King's Channel had water sufficient to admit the largest ships; it was, however, circuitous, and required variable winds to enable a vessel to pass through; a hidden rock also rendered it dangerous. The dredge-boat was, therefore, employed in deepening the Ford, which it did so effectually that it has now twenty-one feet of water throughout. The cost thereof was £21,901 15s., of which Government contributed £14,588. This Act, however, was repealed by the 9th and 10th Vic., c. 292, which granted more extensive powers for improving the harbour, regulating the pilots, and providing vessels with ballast, under the control of the Directors-general of Inland Navigation, and twenty-four Commissioners, twelve of whom were appointed by the Chamber of Commerce, seven by the Corporation, and five by the Commercial Community of Clonmel. To qualify a commissioner, he should reside within seven miles of Waterford or Clonmel; be possessed of £800, clear of all his just debts, or have premises in either city rated to the poor at £25 per annum: four of the commissioners, appointed by the Chamber of Commerce, to retire in rotation every four years. The commissioners under this Act applied themselves to still further deepening the river, erecting floating-bridges and hulks, improving the quays, and in other necessary works, on which they expended in the ten years ending 31st March, 1853, a sum of £15,309 2s. 7d.; and they also paid the Board of Works £500 towards the construction of a new pier at Duncannon. The dredging operations, however, have been recently suspended, in consequence of the dredge-boat requiring repairs that will cost £4,650; but even this expenditure should be submitted to, as it appears that, independent of the shoal already described, there are other obstructions from the bridge to below the island, that ought to be removed, and every part of the navigation kept clear. The Harbour Commissioners make up their accounts

annually; for the year ending 31st March, 1843, the harbour revenue was £6,948, and the expenditure £5,712. For the year ending 31st March, 1854, the receipts were £5,701 *ls.* 7*d.*, derived from tonnage dues of 1½*d.* to 3*d.* per ton on vessels from Great Britain and coastways, regulated according to their burden, whether in part or wholly laden with coal; pilotage, equally variable in its arrangement, from *ls.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* per foot under the Act, but it is not exacted to the full extent; ballast from *ls.* to 4*s.* per ton, according to the place it was put on board. The expenditure was £5,234 *Os.* 4*d.* The particulars of both are as follows:—

RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURE.	
Balance on hand, 31st March, 1853	£395 18 6	Paid Contractor for supplying Ballast, Rent of Cliff, &c.	£1,002 12 11
Tonnage Dues received at Waterford..	£1,590 11 3	Ditto Pilots, and cost of Pilot-boats, &c. ...	2,438 4 11
Ditto at Duncannon	9 4 11	Ditto for improving the Piers, Quays, Graving bank, Caretaker on the river, &c.	399 17 1
	1,599 16 2	Ditto Neptune Iron works on account of a new Hulk	624 0 0
Ballast delivered and discharged	1,093 6 8	Ditto Salaries of Officers, Rents, Rates, &c.	769 5 5
Pilotage	2,978 5 3	Balance in the hands of the Treasurer	862 19 9
Sundries, including Interest from the Provincial Bank	29 13 6		
	£6,097 0 1		£6,097 0 1

From this it would appear that there was a serious decrease in the receipts of the harbour for the last ten years; the balance in the treasurer's hands in 1854, was very properly applied to the purchase of a fine pilot cutter, which cost £900. The commissioners owe no debt, and there is no charge for quayage or dues on goods, in which respect, with the exception of Drogheda (and there the tonnage dues are much higher), it has a decided advantage over every other port in Ireland. The joint terminus of the Waterford, Limerick, and Kilkenny railways is within a quarter of a mile of the city, on the opposite side of the river, and a steamer is purchased to convey goods and passengers to and from the city with the greatest expedition. The Tramore line, as described under the head of Railways,

is also in full operation, and another is intended to communicate with Dunmore East at the mouth of the harbour. There is a pilot-master, three deputies, and a number of pilots attached to this port. The water navigation to Carrick and Clonmel must be of great advantage to Waterford. The improvements on the Suir to the former town have been already described in the statistics, under the head of Inland Navigation; and the trade to Clonmel employs 120 barges from twenty to fifty tons burden.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—Waterford formerly manufactured and exported (foreign) large quantities of narrow woollens, stuffs, and cambrics; but no manufactures of the kind exist there now: nor have flax or cotton-spinning been introduced, although the latter has been established since 1818, by the Messrs. Malcolmson Brothers, of Mayfield, Portlaw, about 11 miles from this city, where once stood a flour mill. Some idea may be formed of the extent of this factory, from a reservoir on the roof, 280 feet in length by 40 in width, from which water in the event of fire can be discharged to extinguish it. The machinery is driven by three large water-wheels, aided by three powerful steam-engines, whose united force is equal to 300 horses. The factory employs 1,800 persons; and the expenditure in wages is about £1,000 weekly. The raw cotton spun here annually exceeds 2,000,000 lbs.; and the calico manufactured 6,000,000 yards, which is bleached and printed on the premises, and bears a high character in the home and foreign markets. The trade commenced by supplying a few shops in Waterford and Clonmel; but by the spirited and indefatigable exertions of the proprietors, immense quantities of their manufacture are now sent to India, China, the United States, our Colonies, and the Pacific; and which is obliged, for want of a direct foreign trade, to be first shipped to an English port for exportation. The machinery is also constructed on the premises, which includes a foundry and mechanics' shop. Mrs. Malcolmson has established two schools for the education of the juvenile females, where they are taught without the slightest interference with their religious tenets; an example which it would be well for some ladies of rank to imitate. Provisions are extensively cured in Waterford, particularly bacon, which

is largely exported to England ; as well as that manufactured at Clonmel, Carrick-on-Suir, Kilkenny, and Carlow. The butter from the latter place, shipped here, brings the highest price in the London market. There are several flour and corn mills, 3 iron foundries, 5 tan yards, 3 salt works, 4 soap, 1 glue, 1 starch and blue, 3 rope and canvas, 3 blacking, and 2 tobacco manufactories. There is a rectifying distillery, and several breweries. Messrs. Strangman and Davis's porter and ale are held in high estimation both at home and abroad. The glass works established by Gatchel and Co. in 1783, manufactured glass of a very superior description, which they exported largely to America ; and, notwithstanding the depression in the trade, continued working until 1852, when they ceased ; but it is to be hoped only temporarily. An experimental factory to extract sugar from beet-root was established here by Messrs. Nind and Co. in 1852, to show that at a moderate expense the planter who cultivated the root to any extent could manufacture the sugar on the farm. Until very recently there was little or no accommodation for building or repairing ships ; but Mr. Albert White has established a Morton's patent slip at his ship-yard, where vessels of the largest tonnage are built and repaired ; he has now on the stocks a ship of 1,200 tons, and he annually builds one of 600 or 700 tons burden. Mr. Charles Smith has also opened a ship-building yard, and has now a large brig on the stocks. There are also two other ship-builders, who repair and construct vessels of smaller tonnage. Messrs. Malcolmson's Neptune iron works are very extensive, and employ upwards of 100 hands ; a large iron steamer is constructed here annually. There are neither floating nor graving docks at Waterford ; the former may not be required, from the protection and deep water the Suir affords ; but the establishment of the latter would no doubt prove a remunerative undertaking. Previous to the repeal of the Corn-laws, Clonmel had the most extensive flour mills in Ireland, on the erection of which large capitals were expended. The Legislature, so tenacious on other occasions of interfering with vested interests, or individual enterprise, particularly if English, admitted foreign flour duty free, without affording the slightest compensation to those whose investments were thus in a great measure rendered a nullity. In 1832, Clonmel alone exported, *via* Waterford,

230,540 cwts. of flour. There is now a large distillery in full operation there, several breweries, and other manufactories.

Its importance, however, is in a great measure owing to its commerce. Previous to Ireland becoming a great agricultural country, Waterford exported to foreign countries and the colonies its woollen manufactures, beef, pork, hides, and a cheese called Mullahawn, of which large quantities were sent to Newfoundland. Its export trade, however, for many years has been chiefly with England; and in 1813 amounted to £2,200,454 16s. On an average of three years, ending in 1834, it exported annually 918 tierces and 1,795 barrels of beef and pork, 392,613 fitches of bacon, 132,384 cwts. of butter, 19,139 cwts. of lard, 152,113 barrels of wheat, 160,954 barrels of oats, 27,045 barrels of barley, 403,852 cwts. of flour, 18,640 cwts. of oatmeal, 44,241 pigs, 5,808 cows and oxen, 9,729 sheep; and cotton manufactured goods; which with minor articles were valued at £2,092,668 14s. In 1835 its exports were estimated by the Irish Railway Commissioners at £1,821,245; and its imports, consisting of tobacco, sugar, wine, tea, coffee, hemp, tallow, pitch, tar, flax, cotton, potash, dye stuffs, timber, staves, iron, hides, saltpetre, brimstone, &c., from foreign ports,—and from Great Britain coal, bark, slates, tiles, iron, glass, spirits, tea, colonial produce, and almost every article of British manufacture,—valued at £1,274,154. The tonnage inwards from foreign ports the same year was 12,473 tons, and from Great Britain and coastways 154,004 tons; the vessels belonging to the port were 115, of 11,986 tons; and the customs' duties £135,845. Previous to the recent famine, its exports of grain, flour, and meal, continued to increase; but since then it has imported wheat and Indian corn from Egypt, the Levant, Odessa, and the ports of Great Britain. The salmon, taken in the Suir, Nore, and Barrow, is very considerable; and the export from Waterford to Bristol in 1844 was 20,852 fish, weighing 151,645 lbs., independent of large quantities sent to Dublin, and consumed at home. The following tables from official returns show the trade of this port from 1840, to 5th January, 1850; but they most inexplicably include the customs' duties of New Ross in those of Waterford; although the tonnage inwards and outwards is given separately. From 1850 to 1854 both are furnished exclusive of New Ross.

WATERFORD.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of this Port, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein, including those of New Ross, for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending with the five preceding years.

Years ending 5th January	EXPORTING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Shipping.	Customs' Duties Collected. (Including New Ross)												
	Foreign Trade					British and Coasting Trade.					TOTAL INWARDS.					Foreign Trade.							British and Coasting Trade.					TOTAL OUTWARDS.						
	British.		Foreign.			Total		Vess.		Tonne.			Vess.		Tonne.			Vess.		Tonne.			Vess.		Tonne.			Vess.		Tonne.				
	Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.	Tonne.			Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.	Vess.	Tonne.	Tonne.			
1841.....	87	17863	22	3802	109	21665	1833	182030	1942	203695	70	17025	11	2173	81	19198	1167	116097	1248	135295	170	20563	199987											
1842.....	80	17403	8	1785	88	19188	1426	146686	1514	165874	57	14956	5	1331	62	16287	1008	105047	1070	121934	166	20559	193629											
1843.....	65	12610	3	373	68	12983	1413	141061	1481	159044	55	13151	1	110	56	13261	1029	107808	1085	120469	171	20227	200742											
1844.....	58	11818	4	708	62	12526	1414	147657	1476	160183	43	10285	3	479	46	10764	1269	180779	1315	141543	172	20667	177554											
1845.....	64	13698	9	1340	73	15038	1372	143645	1445	158683	59	14106	6	873	65	14979	1207	122288	1272	137267	175	21995	195969											
	354	73392	46	8008	400	81400	7458	766079	7858	847479	284	69523	26	4966	310	74489	5680	582019	5990	656508	854	103911	967881											
1846.....	92	19592	7	1208	99	20800	1552	161928	1631	182728	60	13884	4	624	64	14508	1339	135919	1403	150427	190	23985	175133											
1847.....	121	21825	32	8240	153	30065	1406	155995	1559	186060	99	20881	7	1910	106	22791	962	106382	1068	129173	198	27110	193077											
1848.....	206	38622	123	26547	329	65169	1216	130952	1545	196121	153	32441	57	13426	210	45867	758	85329	968	131196	206	27385	167398											
1849.....	68	11595	67	8278	135	19873	1178	134666	1313	154539	51	11718	33	3823	84	15541	922	103445	1006	118986	215	27431	166179											
1850.....	109	20019	89	13972	198	33991	1062	128247	1260	162238	63	15376	65	8796	128	24172	852	107461	980	131633	198	25017	147362											
5 years '46 to '50	596	111653	318	58245	914	169898	6414	711788	7329	861686	426	94300	166	28579	592	122879	4833	538536	5425	661415	1007	130928	849149											
5 years '41 to '46	354	73392	46	8008	400	81400	7456	766079	7858	847479	284	69523	26	4966	310	74489	5680	582019	5990	656508	854	103911	967881											
10 years '41 to '50	950	185045	364	66253	1314	251298	13872	1477867	15186	1729165	710	163823	192	33545	902	197368	10518	1120555	11415	1317923	1861	234889	1817096											
Increase	242	38261	272	50237	514	88498	1044	54291	530	34207	142	24777	140	23613	282	48390	847	43483	565	4907	153	27017	118732											
							Decr.	Decrease.		Increase.		Decr.	Decrease.				Decr.	Decrease.		Increase.			Decrease.											

These Tables show, that during the ten years ending 5th January 1850, there entered this port from Foreign ports, tonnage to the extent of 251,298 tons, of which 66,263 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 1,47,807 tons: total Inwards 1,720,165 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 197,368 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 23,613 tons were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastways, 1,120,555 tons. There were registered belonging to this port, 1,861 vessels of 234,839 tons, and the Customs' duties collected, including those of New Ross, were £1,817,080. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade Inwards of 88,498 tons, of which 60,237 tons were Foreign shipping, and on that with Great Britain and Coastways there was a decrease of 54,291 tons; but on the total trade Inwards there was an increase of 34,207 tons. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 48,390 tons, of which 23,613 tons were Foreign shipping; but there was a decrease on the trade with Great Britain and Coastways of 43,483 tons: but a total increase Outwards of 4,907 tons. On the registered shipping there were 27,017 tons more registered in the latter than in the former period; but the actual increase of the year ending 5th January, 1850, over that of 1846, was 23 vessels and 3,022 tons; but there was a decrease on the Customs' duties of £118,732 on the five years.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows :

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.				OUTWARDS.				Registered Shipping Tons.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign British Tons.	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Trade Tons.	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Foreign British Tons.	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Trade Tons.	Foreign Trade. Tons.		
1851..	15,865	14,260	166,227	..11,235	14,023	137,953	..22,750	114,821		
1852..	16,796	22,193	131,342	..13,917	22,858	106,275	..21,470	101,139		
1853..	17,071	19,472	119,475	..11,273	18,210	101,304	..20,390	93,586		
1854..	16,848	20,136	121,748	..12,589	21,995	101,355	..20,279	96,460		

The trade of this port, therefore, for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 55,383 tons Foreign, and 304,180 tons in the British and Coasting trade. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 75,764 tons, and the British and Coasting 237,617 tons : being an increase on the former of 20,381 tons, and a decrease on the latter of 66,563 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 66,026 tons, and the British and Coasting 220,779 tons : being a decrease of 9,738 tons on the Foreign, and 16,838 tons on the British and Coasting trade. In 1854 the Foreign trade was 72,568 tons, and the British and Coasting trade 223,103 tons : being an increase on the former of 6,542 tons, and on the latter of 2,324 tons. The registered shipping, which consisted of 183 vessels of 22,750 tons in 1851, decreased ten vessels and 2,471 tons in 1854 ; and there was also a decrease in the customs' duties of £18,361. In the registered shipping are included nineteen steamers of 5,791 tons, and including their engine-rooms 8,118 tons, belonging to this port ; thirteen are iron-built, five of which are screw-impelled ; ten of these of 3,345 tons are the property of Messrs. Malcolmson Brothers : four of 868 tons are owned by Messrs. J. and J. Malcolmson ; and five of 1,578 tons by the Waterford Commercial Steam Company. The number of persons employed in collecting the customs' revenue of this port in 1849 was 132, whose united salaries amounted to £4,829 13s. 9d. The Waterford coast-fishery extends from the east bank of Bannow-ferry to Ballyvoile-head, comprising a maritime boundary of seventy-six miles, and in 1851 there were 384 vessels and 1,578 men and boys employed in the pursuit.

Public Buildings.—The Chamber of Commerce, situated in King Street, is a large commodious building—the offices of the Harbour-Commissioners, and the library and news-room of the Waterford Institution, are also in it. The Town Hall, where the exchange was formerly held. The Bishop's Palace, a handsome building of hewn stone, with a portico of the Doric order. The Custom House. The County Court House, built by James Gandon. The City Court House, and the County and City Gaols. The House of Correction, built in 1820, cost £4,990 ; attached to which are grounds, and a school for the employment and instruction of the prisoners. The Leper Hospital, endowed by King John. The Hospital of the Holy Ghost, founded in 1240, by Sir Hugh Purcel, for friars minor; but on its dissolution in 1545, purchased and established as an hospital by Henry Walsh. Fanning's Poor House. The Mechanics' Institute and Newsroom. The County and City Club Newsroom. The Agricultural and Horticultural Society, under the patronage of the Marquis of Waterford. The Infantry and Artillery Barracks, capable of accommodating 680 men, and eighty-seven horses. Reginald's Tower, already described. The District Lunatic Asylum, which admits 117 patients, the city having the privilege of sending forty of them ; cost of maintenance in 1851 was £2,028. The Union Workhouse was built to accommodate 1,280 inmates, and three auxiliary workhouses for 1,412 additional. The Union contains an area of 125,720 acres, in the counties of Waterford and Kilkenny, in thirty electoral divisions, represented by thirty-nine elected and thirty ex-officio guardians ; the value of the property rated in 1852 was £139,256, and the expenditure £12,610 17s. 1½d. The rate in aid levied in 1851 was £3,901 3s. 10d. ; there was none levied in 1852, nor issued in support of this Union. There is a school in the house deriving support from the National Board of Education, where 591 male and female inmates were instructed in 1853.

The Houses of Religious Worship.—The Protestant Cathedral was originally erected by the Osmen of Waterford, in 1096, and stood the ravages of time until 1773, when the present church was built on its site, and partly of its materials, at a cost of £5,397. It is a handsome edifice with a lofty and ornamented spire. The Con-

istorial Court is at the west entrance. The other Protestant churches are, St. Olaves, built in 1734 ; St. Patrick's, which serves for the parishes of St. Patrick, St. Peter, and St. John within and without ; about twenty years ago, the Ecclesiastical Commissioners granted £576 for its improvement. The Catholic Cathedral is situated in Baron Strand Street, and was erected in 1793, on ground granted by the corporation, at an expense of £20,000, raised by subscription, and pence collected at the old chapel doors ; it is of the Ionic order of architecture, but interiorly the roof is supported on ranges of Corinthian pillars. There are three other Catholic churches in the parishes of Trinity within and without, St. Patrick, St. John, and Ballygunner. Dominican, Franciscan, and Augustinian convents, to which there are chapels attached. There are three nunneries of the Sisters of Charity, Ursulines, and Presentation orders. The Presbyterians, Baptists, Independents, Wesleyan Methodists, and Society of Friends, have also handsome and eligible houses of worship.

The Educational Institutions are—The Catholic College of St. John, founded by the Rt. Rev. Dr. Power, for the education of young men intended for the Catholic ministry ; attached to it is a school for lay boarders and day scholars. It is a plain building, but of spacious dimensions, and attached to it are extensive gardens and pleasure grounds. The School of Design. The National Schools, including the District Agricultural Model School at Gloungarragh. The Commercial School, also, in connexion with the National Board of Education. The Christian Brothers model schools at Mount Sion, established in 1803, by Edmund Rice, a monk, the founder of the order, and four other schools in the city, under their superintendence, where 1,300 boys are educated, and a portion apprenticed. The Christian Brothers receive no remuneration from the National Board of Education, or otherwise, being purely influenced from religious motives to instruct the children of the poor. The Sisters of Charity and the Nuns of the Ursuline and Presentation Convents educate 700 female children, where they are also taught all kinds of needle-work, and the proceeds paid to them. The Catholic and Protestant Orphan Schools, where children of their

respective religions are educated, maintained, and apprenticed. A private Protestant Endowment School, at which there were fifty-eight boys in 1852, but none were taught gratis. The Blue Coat School, exclusively for Protestant boys and girls; the former founded by Bishop Foy, who died in 1707, leaving a considerable bequest for the maintenance of the boys' school, which has since then so much increased that there are upwards of 1,400 acres of land to support the establishment; the girls' school was founded by Mrs. Mary Mason, in 1740, who expended £750 on the building; Counsellor Alcock, in 1784, left this charity £1,000 to be expended in apprenticing the most deserving of the children. The School of Industry, where thirty females were instructed. A school at New Town for educating the children of the Society of Friends. There are also schools where pupils pay for their tuition; and Ragged and Sunday Schools.

The amount of postage, excise, and stamps collected in Waterford for the four years ending the 5th of January, 1854, was—

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Postage.....	£2,400	2,394	2,586	2,875
Excise	81,392	77,018	82,123	91,813
Stamps	6,270	5,190	5,959	6,661

The Bank of Ireland, the Provincial and National Banks of Ireland, have branches of their establishments here. The Savings Bank was established in 1816, and in November, 1852, had 2,090 depositors; total amount lodged £57,099, at a rate of £2 15s. 6½d. per cent. The office is held in a handsome and commodious building, erected in 1844 at a cost of nearly £5,000, which was paid out of the surplus funds. The Waterford Loan Fund in 1853 was £2,890, and accommodated to the extent of £13,776 during the year. There are three newspapers published—the *Waterford Mail*, twice a week; the *Waterford News*, on Fridays; and the *Waterford Chronicle*, on Saturdays.

The county of the city of Waterford now includes a portion of land on the north side of the Suir, which formerly belonged to the county Kilkenny, and by the charter of Charles I. the port and river to Carrick were also included in it.

NEW ROSS.

NEW ROSS, so called to distinguish it from Old Ross, which lies east of it, about three miles and a half, is in Wexford county, eighty-three miles S.S.W. of Dublin, $52^{\circ} 22' N.$, $6^{\circ} 58' W.$, and is situated on the river Barrow, about a mile below its junction with the Nore. Its parliamentary boundaries comprise 544 acres, which include Rosbercon, once a borough in itself, and to which it is united by a wooden bridge composed of oak, 510 feet long, with 150 feet of causeway. This bridge was built by Mr. E. Cox in 1794, at a cost of £11,200, the produce of shares issued by a company appointed under an Act of Parliament; the tolls amount to about £800 per annum. In 1831 New Ross consisted of 1,040 houses, and a population of 7,523 persons; in 1841 it had 1,173 houses and 7,543 inhabitants; in 1851 the houses were 1,180, and the inhabitants 7,941, being an increase of 7 houses and 389 persons. This borough sent two members to the Irish, and has still the privilege of returning one to the United Parliament; its present representative is C. G. Duffy, Esq., proprietor of the *Nation* newspaper, Dublin. The franchise, under 2 Wm. IV., c. 88, was extended to £10 householders, and in 1834 the constituency was 224; in 1849 it decreased to 207. In 1851, under 13 and 14 Vic., c. 69, it further decreased to 171; in 1853 it was 193, of which there were 189 rated occupiers and 4 freemen or burgesses. The old corporation was dissolved under the Irish Municipal Bill, and the corporate property, amounting in 1851 to £312 17s. 1d., derived from rents and tolls, £344 13s. 7d. from borough rates, and £43 9s. from other sources—total £700 19s. 8d., was vested in twenty-one commissioners, under 9 Geo. IV., c. 82. The town is delightfully situated on the side of a hill, but with rather a precipitate descent towards the river, with which some of the principal streets run parallel, and are well paved and lit

with gas. The river here takes its name from the town, and comprises the waters of the Barrow and the Nore, which form a junction about a mile previous to reaching New Ross. Both, as already shown, have their source in the Slieve Bloeme Mountain; the Barrow, in its course, joins the Grand Canal at Athy, and, passing through the centre of the county Carlow, waters Leighlin Bridge and St. Mullins. It is more particularly described under the head of Inland Navigation in the statistics. The Nore, after taking a sweep to the S.S.E., through the Queen's county, waters the city of Kilkenny and the towns of Thomastown and Innistiogue; vessels of moderate burden can come up to the latter, and the river is navigable for barges to the former.

Although St. Albe early built an extensive monastery here, the ruins of which could be traced in the seventeenth century, it is said the town owes its origin to Isabella Strongbow's daughter, and wife to William le Mareschal. Edward the First granted it a charter, through Roger Bigod, which directs that the provost, after election, should be presented to him, or his heirs, at his castle of Old Ross. The town about this period was called *Rossponie*, from a bridge having been thrown across the Barrow. Its situation on this fine navigable river soon rendered it populous, and to secure themselves from the incursions of the Fitzmaurices, DeBurghs, and other unscrupulous chieftains, the inhabitants inclosed it with a wall a mile in circumference, in the erection of which the young females assisted, which was commemorated by a strong tower, built at one of the five gates, called the Maiden Tower, where those for offences against the sex were exclusively imprisoned. The town could then muster 363 cross-bowmen, 1,200 long-bow archers, 3,000 men-at-arms, and 104 horsemen, nearly equal to its entire population now. In the reign of Henry the Third, Waterford attempted to deprive it of its privileges as a commercial port, which was, after a series of years, decided in favour of Ross by the English Court of Chancery. In 1469, it was burned by Donald Kavenagh, and from this period it appears to have lost much of its importance, as in 1483 an Act was passed prohibiting the alienation of freeholds in the town without the consent of the provost and council. A charter, granted by Richard the Third, allows the inhabitants to treat and trade with

the Irish enemy in war as well as in peace. In 1641, the town was garrisoned by the confederates ; and the Marquis of Ormond, with a considerable force, attempted to take it by assault, but was repulsed with great slaughter and obliged to raise the siege. He defeated the Irish, however, at Kilrush, in 1643, and the bridge of Ross was destroyed to prevent his pursuit. In 1649, on the arrival of Cromwell in Ireland, Ormond was admitted into the town, which he garrisoned and supplied with other means of defence ; but after the act of treachery that placed Wexford in the hands of the sanguinary and impious protector, Ross surrendered to him on conditions, and the fortifications were dismantled. The gate by which his troops entered is called Three Bullet gate, from three cannon shots having been fired against it, which was Cromwell's mode of summoning a garrison to surrender. One of the most obstinate, sanguinary, and important battles of 1798 was fought here. On the 4th of June, the division of the Wexford army which, after capturing that town, had retired from it under the command of Bagnal B. Harvey, took a position on Crosby Hill, within a mile of New Ross, which was occupied by General Johnson with a regular force of 1,200 men, besides yeomanry. It was an important position, and the key to the province of Munster, where thousands of united Irishmen were waiting to join the Wexfordians. Early on the morning of the 5th of June, Harvey dispatched a Mr. Furlong with a flag of truce and a letter to General Johnson, demanding the surrender of the town, to prevent the effusion of blood. Contrary to all military rule, Furlong was shot on his approaching the outposts. Harvey intended to have attacked the town at several points simultaneously, but a division of his men who had witnessed this atrocious and cowardly act could not be restrained from instantaneously taking vengeance on the perpetrators, and, without waiting for the second division, rushed on the enemy, breaking their lines, and overthrowing horse, foot, and artillery, which fled in disorder into the town, where they were pursued by the assailants from street to street, and driven over the bridge into the county Kilkenny ; no sooner had they effected this object, and without attempting to pursue the retreating foe and consummate the victory they had all but won, they gave themselves up to drunkenness and insubordination. The royal forces, finding

they were not pursued, rallied, and re-entered the town, where the intoxicated insurgents were easily overthrown ; and those who were able to make the necessary exertion fled to the camp, while their stupified comrades were massacred wholesale. At this critical juncture, a Wexford youth of the name of Lett, only thirteen years of age, snatched up a standard, and called on the retreating crowd to follow him. Admiring the courage of this boy, and ashamed of their ignominious defeat, 2,000 pikemen responded to the call, and made a furious attack on the astonished garrison. The battle was now renewed and more obstinately contested than before. The royal artillery, which was well served, mowed down the insurgents in great numbers, but the heroic Wexfordians rushed on, even to the cannon's mouth, piked the gunners, and captured one of the guns. The pike did fearful execution on this occasion, and the royal forces were a second time driven from the town ; and a second time did the victors commit the egregious folly of drinking to excess. Notwithstanding the fatal consequences that were certain to ensue, the Irishman of that day could not restrain his unfortunate propensity for ardent spirits ; had Father Mathew lived anterior to this event, and inculcated his total abstinence doctrine, and that patriotism and enthusiasm had excited the Wexfordians instead of whiskey, the result of this conflict could not be for a moment doubtful. The royal troops, left again unmolested in their retreat, had time to form, and returned to the scene of action. A great portion of the town was now on fire, and amidst the blaze and falling ruins the combatants fought with unabated fury. For ten hours did this sanguinary battle last ; but superior discipline, and a well-appointed light artillery, eventually secured the victory to the royalists, and the Wexfordians finally retreated from the town, which, as it was then said, they had twice won by hard fighting, and twice lost by hard drinking. Only about one-third of the Wexford army, under Harvey, was engaged in this action, and when it was first driven from the town the other portion, instead of coming to its aid, was seized with one of those unaccountable panics which have often proved fatal to the best disciplined armies, and might well be excused in a raw and inexperienced peasantry, if, in their retreat, they had not committed one of those savage and atrocious acts

which nearly placed them on a level with their cruel and ferocious opponents. A party of these runaways, who had prematurely spread the news of the defeat of Ross, reached the village of Scullabogue, about five miles from thence, where, in a barn, the prisoners recently taken by the insurgents, probably amounting to 100, were confined. Cowards are almost invariably cruel, and these wretches, overpowering the guards, who resisted as long as they were able, set fire to the building, and every human being within its walls perished in the flames. This diabolical act was properly held in abhorrence by all good men; but none were more vehement in denouncing it than those who had previously countenanced and encouraged the application of pitched caps, floggings, house burning, half hangings, picketing, shooting unarmed peasants, and wholesale military butcheries, as if the people were dead to all feeling, and the persons and properties of a privileged class and sect only inviolable. While this barbarous act was in progress, those of an equally horrid character were perpetrated at New Ross by the military. No quarter was given to the defeated insurgents; the inhabitants, whom the fire had driven from their houses, were shot, without mercy, in the streets; some of the houses that escaped the conflagration, and in which various persons had taken refuge, were fired, and guards placed to prevent any from escaping: so densely crowded were these, that the inmates, after suffocation, remained in an upright position, one against the other, until removed for interment. The Wexford army in this affair is said to have lost nearly 5,000 men, the greater part of whom were slaughtered in a state of inebriety, or burnt to death the following day. The garrison was also much weakened, and Lord Mountjoy, who commanded the Dublin militia, was early killed in the assault. The defeated insurgents retreated in good order to Carrickburn, five miles distant, unpursued by the garrison, the soldiers composing it being so exhausted that they lay down in the streets to sleep among the dead, and had Harvey, during the night, attacked it with even a small force, it must have been annihilated, as resistance was impossible. Harvey, however, was the most unlikely man to attempt such an enterprise; he had shown himself during the day totally unfit to command such a force, and to his apathy and want of

generalship were mainly attributed the disasters that ensued. He, therefore, returned to Wexford, and was succeeded in the command by the Rev. Philip Roche, a man every way qualified for so difficult a post. New Ross was several years in recovering from this calamitous affair, which had nearly reduced it to ashes.

Harbour Improvements.—The harbour of New Ross commences at the junction of the Suir and Barrow, from which it is ten miles to the town, and extends beyond it to the entrance of the navigation at St. Mullins, on the latter river, and to the Lock quay at Innistiogue, on the Nore. This port, which had been formerly declared free of Waterford, was subsequently made a branch of it, and again in 1840 was declared independent, and made a bonding port. It is well circumstanced for trade, having deep water from St. George's channel to the town. To render the navigation as perfect as possible, an Act was obtained, 11 and 12 Vic., c. 139, for the maintenance and improvement of the port and harbour under the direction of twelve commissioners, three of whom are *ex-officio*; the collector of customs for the time being one; the chairman of the town commissioners, and a member of the town council of Kilkenny nominated by the corporation, being the other two. The commissioners by this Act were empowered to levy tonnage dues on vessels of the United Kingdom or the Colonies not exceeding 100 tons burden at the rate of 2d. per ton, and on those exceeding that tonnage 3d. per ton; Foreign vessels to pay double tonnage dues. Steamers plying between New Ross and Waterford, subject to one shilling and sixpence a day, or ten shillings a week. Barges and lighters, 20s. a year, or one shilling for every cargo laden or discharged at the quays. One-fifth of these tolls to be laid out on improving the harbour between New Ross and Innistiogue. They were also authorised to borrow a sum not exceeding £5,000 on the security of the harbour revenue. Another Act was passed the following session, 12 and 13 Vic., c. 14, to explain and amend the schedules in the previous Act. The quays which are situated on the east side of the river, have been considerably extended and improved by the commissioners, who have expended £3,000 on them. Their width is now from 200 to 300 yards, and at low water there is a depth of from fifteen to twenty-

six feet along-side. The shoal already described between Duncannon fort and the entrance to Waterford harbour, is equally injurious to New Ross; and the Harbour Commissioners joined those of Waterford in their application to the Lord Lieutenant in 1854, to induce him to use his influence with the government to have it removed. It appeared on that occasion, that the New Ross Commissioners had laid out £5,000 since their formation in 1848, in improving the harbour.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—There are few or no manufactures at New Ross, although it is so admirably situated for them. The provision trade is carried on to some extent, and the quantity of bacon cured for the English market considerable. There are several flour and corn mills, ale and porter breweries, tan yards, rope, soap and candle manufactories, and a ship yard, or slip for building and repairing vessels. There was formerly an extensive fishery, chiefly in salmon, carried on in small boats called cots; each cot had two nets, which employed four men; but it has decreased considerably owing to the erection of Scotch weirs both above and below the town; these, however, also in the season employ a great number of men. Previous to Foreign provisions being admitted free to the Colonies, New Ross had a considerable export trade in mess pork to Newfoundland, to which it still exports its ale and porter; and to Great Britain, grain, flour, meal, bacon, butter, and salmon; and Coastways, Kilkenny coal. Its imports, Foreign, are timber and deals from the Baltic and British America; and oil and fish from Newfoundland. From Great Britain its imports consist of coal, slates, Colonial produce, and British manufactured articles. The emigration from this port for the last few years has been very considerable; it is principally to British America; the ships so employed generally returning with cargoes of timber. Although there has been a decrease in the tonnage, Foreign as well as with Great Britain and Coastways, for the year ending 5th January, 1854, yet the trade of this port is in a healthy state and likely to improve. The following tables will best show the state of its commerce from 1840 to 1854:

NEW ROSS.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of this Port, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; and the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending with the five preceding years.

Years ending 5th January	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Shipping, Customs' Duties Collected.				
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.									
	British.			Total.		British.			Total.		British.			Total.		British.			Total.						
	Vess.	Tons.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.			
	1841	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	1847	1848	1849	1850	1841	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	1847	1848	1849	1850	1841	1842	1843	1844	1845
1841	4	1249	1	99	5	1348	75	6110	80	7458	1	99	1	99	34	2173	35	2272
1842	15	3367	12	1736	27	5103	433	36975	460	42078	12	3061	7	1293	19	4284	113	6640	132	10924	11	1883	11	1883	11
1843	20	4654	3	343	23	4997	487	40400	510	45397	10	2843	3	343	13	3186	117	6780	130	9966	14	2071	14	2071	14
1844	8	2508	1	85	9	2593	377	30110	386	32703	9	3119	9	3119	119	6860	128	9979	13	2182	13	2182	13
1845	21	6480	3	509	24	6989	463	35200	487	42189	15	5139	1	101	16	5240	123	6428	139	11668	16	4383	16	4383	16
	68	18258	20	2772	88	21030	1835	148795	1923	169825	46	14152	12	1776	58	15928	506	28881	564	44809	54	10469	54	10469	54
1846	18	5577	4	801	22	6378	543	41207	565	47585	18	5971	3	431	21	6402	118	6124	139	12526	20	5607	20	5607	20
1847	31	8082	2	420	33	8502	521	42617	554	51119	22	7332	3	790	25	8122	81	4581	106	12703	22	5842	22	5842	22
1848	59	14238	25	5502	84	19740	290	20305	374	40045	33	9606	26	5465	59	15071	94	5790	153	20861	26	9574	26	9574	26
1849	39	10040	14	2852	53	12892	360	27879	413	40771	25	8917	10	2277	35	11194	105	6952	140	18146	27	10408	27	10408	27
1850	26	5202	16	3771	42	8973	260	19201	302	28184	22	7482	16	3900	38	11382	69	4340	107	15722	27	9677	27	9677	27
5 years '46 to '50	173	43139	61	13346	234	56485	1974	151209	2208	207694	120	39308	58	12863	178	52171	467	27787	645	79958	122	41108	122	41108	122
10 years '41 to '46	68	18258	20	2772	88	21030	1835	148795	1923	169825	46	14152	12	1776	58	15928	506	28881	564	44809	54	10469	54	10469	54
10 years. '41 to '50	241	61397	81	16118	322	77515	3809	300004	4131	377519	166	53460	70	14639	236	68099	973	58668	1209	124767	176	51577	176	51577	176
Increase..	115	24881	41	10574	146	35455	139	2414	285	37869	74	25156	46	11087	120	36243	39	1094	81	35149	68	30639	68	30639	68

These Tables show, that during the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered this port from Foreign ports, tonnage to the extent of 77,515 tons, of which 16,118 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 300,004 tons: total Inwards 377,519 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 68,069 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 14,639 tons were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastways 56,668 tons: total Outwards 124,767 tons. There were registered 176 vessels of 51,577 tons. But the Customs' Duties, by one of those incomprehensible jumbles in the Official returns, are included for these ten years in the Customs' revenue of Waterford, although the tonnage is returned separately. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade Inwards of 35,455 tons, of which 10,574 tons were Foreign shipping, and on that with Great Britain and Coastways 2,414 tons: total increase Inwards 37,869 tons. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 36,243 tons, of which 11,087 tons were Foreign shipping; there was a decrease of 1,094 tons on the trade with Great Britain and Coastways; but an increase on the total trade Outwards of 35,149 tons. There were 68 vessels and 30,639 tons more registered in the latter than the former period; but the actual increase of 1850 over 1845 was 11 vessels and 5,344 tons.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows :—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tons.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Trade. British Tons.	Foreign Trade. Foreign Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Trade. Tons.	Foreign Trade. British Tons.	Foreign Trade. Foreign Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Trade. Tons.		
1851..	4,893	4,851	19,977..	7,391	4,231	3,439 ..	9,382	22,067
1852..	7,049	6,966	22,196..	10,650	6,645	4,692 .	9,312	21,417
1853..	5,241	6,530	17,741..	6,551	5,513	3,727 ..	7,660	22,187
1854..	3,992	4,914	16,630..	5,468	4,818	4,594 ..	5,825	24,074

The trade of this port, therefore, for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 21,366 tons Foreign, and 23,416 tons in the British and Coasting trade. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 31,310 tons, and the British and Coasting 26,888 tons : being an increase on the former of 9,944 tons, and on the latter of 3,472 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 23,835 tons, and the British and Coasting 21,468 tons : being a decrease on the former of 7,475 tons, and on the latter of 5,420 tons. In 1854 the Foreign trade was 19,192 tons, and the British and Coasting 21,224 tons : being a further decrease on the former of 4,643 tons, and on the latter of 244 tons. The registered shipping, which consisted of twenty-seven vessels of 9,382 tons in 1851, decreased to eighteen vessels and 5,825 tons in 1854 ; but there was an increase in the customs' duties of £2,007. The number of persons employed in collecting the customs' revenue of this port in 1849, was twenty-four, whose joint salaries amounted to £890 11s. 2d.

The Public Buildings are—The Tholsel or Market House, the Court House, and Bridewell. The Custom House. The Infirmary for Chronic Diseases. The Fever Hospital, founded in 1809 by the late H. Houghton, to which is attached a dispensary ; these institutions are under the management of twelve Catholic and twelve Protestant directors, including the clergymen of both sects, who are also trustees ; the funds are derived from a bequest of the founder of £300 per annum, £400 a-year grand jury assessment, and some minor subscriptions and donations. The Trinity Hospital, founded by a bequest of Thomas Gregory, consists of six houses, which accommodate fourteen poor widows, each of whom has a yearly allow-

ance of £18 1s. The Lying-in Hospital. The Cavalry Barracks, on the site of an ancient church, which accommodates fifty-five men, and a suitable number of horses. The News Room and Circulating Library. The Union Workhouse, built to accommodate 1,150 inmates, and an auxiliary house for 430 more. The Union comprises an area of 177,570 acres, and a population of 56,456 persons in Wexford, Kilkenny, and Carlow counties, in 39 electoral divisions, represented by 20 elected and 20 *ex-officio* guardians. The property rated to the poor in 1852 was valued at £96,763, and the expenditure £11,534. The rate in aid levied in 1851 and 1852, was £821 4s. 10d.; and none issued in its support. In 1853 there were 297 males and 343 females, inmates of the house, receiving educational instruction, to which the National Board contributed.

Houses of Religious Worship.—The Protestant Church of St. Mary is a handsome, commodious edifice, rebuilt in 1813 by a loan of £2,400 from the Board of First Fruits, and a subsequent grant of £390 from the Ecclesiastical Commissioners. A Chapel of Ease, erected by subscription. Two Catholic Churches, in the parishes of New Ross and Rosbercon; that in Sarle Street is a spacious and beautiful structure, the front composed of granite, and the interior handsomely embellished. An Augustinian Convent and chapel attached thereto, situated on the site of the ancient monastery of that order. A Convent of Carmelite Nuns, situated on the summit of the hill which overlooks the town; their chapel, built under the direction of the Rev. Thos. Doyle, is a fine specimen of gothic architecture. The Wesleyan Methodists, the Primitive Methodists, the Presbyterians, Independents, and Society of Friends, have each eligible meeting-houses.

The Educational Institutions are—The National Schools in the parishes of New Ross and Rosbercon, which educate 377 boys; and the extensive schools at the Carmelite Convent, under the superintendence of the sisters of that order, where 748 females were educated in 1853, to which the National Board contributed. An infant school, capable of instructing 100 children. A grammar school founded by Sir John Ivory, to instruct 4 boys, sons of Protestant parents; the school-house, however, where they are taught was

built by the Corporation in 1791, and is capable of accommodating a number of scholars. The school of the Friends of Education, built in 1799, where girls and boys are instructed; the funds are aided by annuities of 3 guineas from the late Mr. Paul, and £10 from Mr. J. Hughes. The College seminary, under superintendence of the Augustinian Friars. The Christian Brothers' schools, where 240 boys receive education. There are also private and Sunday schools.

The Bank of Ireland and the National Bank of Ireland have branches of their establishments here. There are two loan funds of £5,336, which in 1853 afforded accommodation to the extent of £21,829. The postage collected here for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was £652; in 1852 it was £783; in 1853, £879; and in 1854 it increased to £969. There are neither excise nor stamp offices for the collection of these imposts in New Ross. A steamer plies daily between this port and Waterford.

Proceeding from Waterford Harbour, Ballyteigue Bay, on the Wexford coast, is passed; at the western extremity of which is Fethard, and Bannow harbour, and where once stood Bannow town, a place of so much importance as to be incorporated by charter in the reign of Edward I.; but the shifting sands so dangerous on this coast have since then encroached so much, that the old town has disappeared, and is supposed to be buried at a considerable depth in the sand, from which it has got the name of the Irish Herculaneum. Nothing now remains to mark where it once stood, but the ruins of the ancient church on very elevated ground. More to the N.E. are the Saltee Islands; and off Coningbeg rock, the most southern of these, 52° 2' 25" N., 6° 40' W., is moored a vessel exhibiting two lights from separate masts, which appear steady or in motion as the weather varies. Carnsore point, the S.E. extremity of Ireland, and Tusker lighthouse, about 9 miles E.N.E. of it, next appear in view.

TUSKAR LIGHT HOUSE—52° 12' 9" N., 6° 12' 37" W., stands on a barren rock about three acres in extent off the extreme S.E. part of Ireland, and seems in the distance like "a lonely ocean bird perched on an isolated craig." Previous to the erection of this valuable work, innumerable vessels have gone down off this

adamantine rock, not one of their crews escaping to tell the dread catastrophe. It was commenced in the summer of 1813, and on the evening of the 16th October a strong gale sprung up from the S.W., which increased in fury until the 18th. The condition of the unfortunate men on the rock during this period was frightfully awful, as neither ship nor boat could approach it to render them the least assistance. Early in the gale huge billows began to roll over the entire extent of the rock, the summit of the building was overtopped, and the sheds and workhouses swept away in an instant; the loss of human life at the moment was more than thirty, and those only who clung to chains and large blocks of stone survived the following wave; every succeeding wave swept away a victim; some bound themselves by ropes to the chains and blocks, and fortunately the tide began to lower, yet the fury of the elements abated not. The unfortunate survivors prepared themselves against the horrors of the next full tide, which if possible was more dreadfully violent than the last. In this condition they remained for forty-eight hours, never free from the running sea, and frequently buried at high tide many feet beneath the moving mountains of water. The building itself was demolished, and several poor wretches were hurled along with the mass of stones into the dread abyss; many were torn from the chains benumbed and exhausted, whilst others died lashed in their embrace, the iron having almost cut their bodies in two; nineteen shattered and mutilated creatures were at length, with great difficulty, rescued from their horrid position. However, the works were renewed, and on the 4th June, 1815, the light was first exhibited; it consists of 21 argand lamps acting on reflectors, 7 of them presenting one light every two minutes, and one set of these presents a deep red light every six minutes, the whole term of the revolution, and is seen 15 miles to sea; the lights are 105 feet from the base, and the vane from high water mark is 134 feet. The whole construction is a fine work of art; and although the furious billows have beaten to the height of 50 feet on this cone-shaped building, not the least impression or injury has it yet sustained. During falls of snow or hazy weather a bell is tolled at intervals of half a minute. Greenore Bay is next made, and between Rosleare point and fort on the south, and Raven point on the north, Wexford haven is entered.

WEXFORD.

WEXFORD as a maritime town is associated with the earliest records of Irish history. It is situated in the province of Leinster, 93 statute miles S. of Dublin, 52° 20' N., 6° 28' W., on the river Slaney, which has its source in the Wicklow mountains, and after watering Baltinglass, Tallow, Newtownbarry, and Enniscorthy, disembogues itself in Wexford Bay. It comprises an area of 762 acres. In 1831 the population was 10,673 persons. In 1841 it contained 1,807 houses and 11,252 inhabitants; in 1851 the houses were 2,032 and the population 12,471; increase 225 houses and 1,219 persons. It sent two members to the Irish and one to the United parliament, in which it is represented by John T. Devereux, Esq., of Rocklands, a resident of the county. The corporation is styled the mayor, aldermen, and free burgesses of the town or borough of Wexford. The elective franchise by the 2nd Wm. IV., c. 88, was extended to £10 householders. The number of electors registered under this Act in 1834 was 373; in 1849 they decreased to 285; in 1851, under 13 & 14 Vict., c. 69, they increased to 348; but in 1853 again declined to 317, of whom only 222 were rated occupiers, and 95 burgesses and freemen. The income of the borough in 1851 was £371, of which £52 was appropriated to public works, and the residue to pensions and salaries of municipal officers. The town is upwards of a mile in extent from N. to S. At its northern extremity it is connected with the opposite shore of the Slaney by a bridge, constructed of American oak, by Mr. E. Cox, at a cost of £17,000. It was opened originally for traffic in 1795; but as it showed symptoms of decay in 1832, the corporation had it renewed, at an expense of £6,000, of which £4,000 was raised on mortgage of the tolls, then let at £700 per annum. This bridge is 722 feet long, with

causeways 648 and 189 feet at either end ; total length 1,559 feet. The quays, which are a fine range, extend from the bridge 1,000 yards in length and 60 feet in width, but at the crescent the width is increased to 80 feet. On the opposite shore is the ballast quay ; and the Slaney is navigable for barges to Enniscorthy. Some portion of the town walls, and several of the towers that commanded them, are still in a sufficient state of preservation to show their great strength and height ; and the ruins of numerous ancient churches are yet to be seen.

Wexford was a favourite place with the early colonists for effecting a landing on the island. The Belgæ, or Firbolgs, were the third colony who took possession of it, and were the descendants of the Nemidians, who, being defeated by the Famorians from the African coast, were obliged to take refuge in Thrace, under Simon Breac. The Thracians, alarmed at their increasing numbers, reduced them to slavery, and compelled them to sink pits in the valleys and carry the earth, in leathern bags, to the summits of rocks and mountains, and there form an artificial soil, from which circumstances they were called Firbolgs. At length, resolved to throw off the yoke, Slainge, his four brothers, and 5,000 of their followers, having seized the Grecian shipping, put to sea, and made the coast of Ireland. Forming their fleet into three divisions, Slainge, the eldest, landed at Wexford with his forces, from which circumstance it derived its ancient name of *Imbher Slainge*. There is, however, so strong a similitude in this portion of the history of the Firbolgs with that of the Picts, who did not arrive in the island for some centuries after, that it is probable the ancient chronologers confounded one with the other, and that the Belgæ, or Firbolgs, arrived in Ireland from the Belgic coast, and from thence derived their name as related by some historians. All are, however, agreed that Slainge and his four brothers, who had taken possession of other parts of the island, divided it among them, originating that Pentagonal form of government so long adhered to in after ages. Slainge retained the province of Leinster as his portion, with the supreme authority, and was the first king of Ireland. It was also called *Muicinis*, or the Hog's Island, it being the first land descried by the Milesians, and appeared to them in the form of a hog, caused, it is said, by the spells of the Daanans, which induced

them to steer for another part of the coast ; and they subsequently landed at Bantry Bay. After Heremon had possessed himself of the sole sovereignty of the kingdom, the Picts landed here. They were a wandering, warlike race, employing their arms for hire without troubling themselves much as to the justice of the cause in which they embarked. Previous to their visiting Ireland, they were in the service of Policornus, king of Thrace, who attempted to debauch the daughter of their leader, Gud, a virgin of matchless beauty ; but the incensed father slew him, and fled the country accompanied by his daughter and his faithful followers. After passing through several countries they reached France, where they built a city which derived from them its name, Pictavium, now Poitiers. The monarch of this country, being informed of the cause of their departure from Thrace, expressed a wish to see the damsel ; and so captivating and irresistible were her charms, that he determined at all risks to enjoy them ; but her father, aware of his base intent, resolved to perish or secure his daughter's virtue from the polluted touch of regal perfidy, and seizing the shipping on the coast he embarked with his people, and steering westward arrived at Wexford, but with the loss of the fair cause of all their wanderings, who died at sea. Soon after their arrival, Heremon employed them in repelling the piratical incursions of the Britons on the east coast, and having obtained a decisive victory over them, they sought to be allowed to settle in that part of the island, but it was even then so densely populated that their request was refused, and they attempted to effect, by treachery, what they could not obtain by negotiation. They entered into a conspiracy with the defeated Daanans against the Milesians, but Heremon crushed it in embryo. The Picts supplicated for peace, and consented to leave the kingdom and settle in North Britain and the islands adjacent thereto, where they not only became formidable to the Britons, but also to the Romans. They made a compact, offensive and defensive, with Heremon, and for ages after their successors acted in concert against their respective enemies. They were also allowed to intermarry with some of the Milesian females, on pledging themselves that their descendants by them should have priority over all others in the sovereignty and inheritance of the country they were about to

inhabit ; and this stipulation was inviolably adhered to for 2,000 years, and was in force in the time of the Venerable Bede. Friendly relations having been thus established, the Picts, accompanied by their Milesian wives, left the Wexford coast, and took possession, with little difficulty, of their new dominions. A battle was fought at Ard Ladhran, in this neighbourhood, A.M. 2751, between the sons of Heber and Heremon, in which three of the latter were slain, and the chief sovereignty for a short period passed into the hands of the family of Heber. The Danes, in their numerous descents on the island, made Wexford an early maritime settlement of theirs, but up to the Anglo-Norman invasion they paid tribute to the King of Leinster, and frequently joined him in his wars against the chief monarch or provincial princes ; by them it was called *Waisfoird* ; hence its present name.

It was in the neighbourhood of Wexford that the first Englishman, with hostile intent against the independence of Ireland, placed his foot on Irish ground. Dermot MacMurrrough, a name long odious in the annals of his country, was King of Leinster in 1166, and Roderick O'Connor, King of Connaught, was vested with the supreme sovereignty of the island. Dermot, being expelled the kingdom for his tyranny and licentiousness, and particularly for his last most flagrant and outrageous act, the abduction of Dovergilda, the frail wife of O'Rourk, Prince of Breffney, while he was on a pilgrimage to a distant part of the kingdom, repaired to Henry II. of England, who was then at Guienne, in France, and traitorously craved his assistance in restoring him to his kingdom, which he offered to hold in vassalage under the English crown. That wily monarch, however, only granted him letters patent to his subjects, empowering them to aid him in the recovery of his dominions ; with these Dermot visited Bristol in the summer of 1168, where he attempted, for some time in vain, to engage adventurers to support him in his designs. At length, Richard, son of Gilbert, Earl of Pembroke, surnamed Strongbow, who had impaired his fortune by extravagant and excessive pleasures, and being ripe for any desperate enterprise, undertook his cause. Dermot proposed giving him his daughter Eva in marriage, his whole inheritance, and succession to the crown of Leinster at his death, if he would in the ensuing

spring join him in Ireland with a sufficient force, and restore him to his dominions; to which Strongbow assented. Notwithstanding this treaty, so flattering to his hopes, Dermot, on his way to Ireland through Wales, still further strengthened himself by an alliance with other foreign mercenaries. Robert Fitzstephen, constable of Abertivi, then imprisoned as a factionary, but now enlarged by the Bishop of St. David's at Dermot's instance, and whose services he engaged, as well as those of his legitimate brother, Maurice Fitzgerald, in the coming enterprise. Having thus finished his negotiations, he passed over to Ireland in disguise, to confirm in his cause the few who were well affected towards him there, and to make preparations for the reception of his Anglo-Norman subsidiaries. Confiding in the loyalty and attachment of the monks of Ferns, whose monastery he had endowed, he privately repaired there, and on divulging his intentions they promised to conceal him until they could be put in execution. By these means his friends and adherents were encouraged and increased. Maurice Regan, his secretary, was dispatched into Wales, who promised in his name to all who would enter his service, and choose to remain in Ireland, a recompense in land of inheritance, and money or cattle to those who preferred returning; and an Irish force was retained to act in concert with his Anglo-Norman auxiliaries on their arrival. Neither had Fitzstephen been inactive in the interim. Although his affairs had been desperate for some time, so much were his military talents appreciated, that on his promise alone, of sharing the spoil to be acquired, with those who would join him in the enterprise, he soon found himself at the head of 30 knights, 50 esquires, and 300 archers, with whom he embarked at St. David's, and safely landed, in May, 1169, at Bag-en-Bon, on the coast of Wexford. This bold promontory derives its present name from two of the largest of the three ships of which this expedition was composed—the Bonna and the Boenne. The following day, Maurice of Prendergast, with 10 knights and 60 archers, arrived in two vessels; and Dermot, hearing of their landing, dispatched his illegitimate son, Donald Kavenagh, with 500 men, and soon after joined them in person. They now resolved on taking Wexford by assault; but the inhabitants sallied out and met them in the field, and disputed the palm of victory with them until the sun went

down. The great superiority, however, that men in armour had over undisciplined citizens, and the execution done by their archers, from their Norman cross-bows, a weapon as fatal to the Irish in this invasion, as fire-arms were to the native Americans on the Spaniards first appearing among them, gave the Anglo-Normans the advantage in the evening ; and the inhabitants, after firing the suburbs, retired into the town. Fitzstephen, determined to conquer, set fire to his ships, and thus rendered retreat to his followers impossible. The combat was renewed next morning ; but the clergy interfered, and the town was surrendered to Dermot, who bestowed it on Fitzstephen, as the stipulated price of his assistance ; and Hervey de Montmorrisco, a broken-down adventurer, who represented Strongbow, obtained two cantreds of land on the shore between Wexford and Waterford, now the barony of Forth. Fitzstephen, the better to secure his uncertain tenure, erected a castle at Carrigg ; but, having dispatched a considerable portion of his force to Dublin, the men of Wexford invested it ; and having fabricated an account that Strongbow and his followers were totally destroyed, it induced Fitzstephen and his small garrison to surrender. The inhabitants, on hearing of Strongbow's approach, fired the town, and took refuge in Beg Erin Island, with their prisoners, whom they delivered to Henry II. on his arrival at Waterford, and tendered him their allegiance. Henry, on his departure, embarked at this port, and gave the town in charge to William Fitzandelm and other Knights. In 1174, he granted it to Strongbow ; and his sister's marriage with Raymond le Gros was celebrated here. In 1177, Fitzandelm, who was appointed governor of Ireland, placed Walter Ailman in command of the place, but Raymond was soon after restored. William le Mareshal, who had married Strongbow's only daughter, having no male issue, Wexford was assigned to his daughter Joan, who married Warren de Mountchenoy. In 1318, the town received its first charter through Adomar de Valence, who married Warren's only daughter. In 1327, it was attacked by O'Brien, who was repulsed with great loss. In 1462, Sir John Butler seized it for the Lancasterians, but the Earl of Desmond challenged him to decide the contest in the field, to which, having assented, he sustained a total defeat, and the Earl held a parliament here the

following year. Richard Talbot, who married De Valency's daughter, and his descendants, held possession of the town until forfeited by an Act 28 Henry VIII. against absentees. In 1608, James I. granted the castle and borough to the corporation, at a nominal rent. In the civil war of 1641, Wexford was early in the hands of the confederates, and was one of the chief ports for receiving military supplies from abroad. In 1649, Cromwell, reeking from the sack of Drogheda, laid siege to it. Ormond, who had a considerable force under him, could with difficulty prevail on the inhabitants to receive a reinforcement of 2,000 men under Sir E. Butler; but Captain James Stafford, who commanded the castle, having treacherously admitted Cromwell's soldiers, not only were they put to the sword, but the inhabitants, as in Drogheda, massacred in cold blood. The castle and most of the corporation property were then confiscated. After the battle of the Boyne, this town declared for William III. Wexford, although the focus of the rebellion of 1798, was previously the most tranquil and least imbued with the principles of the United Irish Association of any county in Ireland. Every attempt made by its agents to organize it, was received with indifference by the people, and the Catholic clergy particularly discountenanced it. Early in April, however, the North Cork militia were quartered in the town; they had been previously stationed in the north of Ireland, and had probably caught the infection of Orangeism there, which they soon infused into the Protestant corps of Yeomanry in town and country. The most ferocious and brutal excesses were now perpetrated against the Catholic population to excite them to insurrection. Pitch caps, house burning, and flogging even to death, were had recourse to, under the pretence of extorting confessions as to hidden arms, or against those connected with the United Irish Association. The night of the 23rd of May was fixed for the general rising of the United Irishmen, and those of the counties Dublin, Wicklow, and Kildare were to be commanded by Lord Edward Fitzgerald; but the government were in possession of the plans of the directory, and could at any moment seize the leaders and thus frustrate them. On the 19th, his lordship was arrested in Thomas Street, and thrown into prison mortally wounded. O'Connor, Emmet, Samson, McNevin, and other members of the old

directory, had been previously arrested, and Henry and John Shears, who had subsequently undertaken their functions, were also committed to prison on the morning of the 23rd. The appointed time therefore arrived, and found the people without leaders or a well-defined plan of operations; and the consequence was, that in these counties they were easily overthrown by the king's forces. Wexford, however, was tranquil, and continued so until the following Saturday, when a party of Orange yeomanry burnt the chapel of Ballyvogue, in the parish of Kilcormick, and twenty dwelling-houses, among which was that of the Rev. John Murphy, the parish priest. The peasantry, filled with rage at such enormities, turned upon these marauders, and killed two of their officers. The priest, who now saw the folly of his previous peaceful admonitions, joined his parishioners, who took a position on Oulart hill, where they were joined by numbers from the surrounding district. The Schelmalieri yeomanry cavalry, and a detachment of 130 men of the North Cork militia, were dispatched from Wexford to annihilate them, and while the infantry attacked them in front, the cavalry took up a position in their rear to cut off their retreat. The insurgents, finding themselves surrounded, made a vigorous charge on their assailants, and put them instantaneously to the pike; the lieutenant-colonel, a sergeant, and three privates only, escaped. The victors now took possession of Camolin and Ferns, and pursued the military and other fugitives to Enniscorthy, which they also attacked; and although vigorously defended, the courage and impetuosity of the assailants bore down all before them. The royal cavalry twice charged this phalanx of pikemen, but without effect; and after a sanguinary contest of four hours, the garrison fled in a piteous plight to Wexford. The county was now in military possession of the victors; they formed a camp on Vinegar Hill, to which recruits were brought in from all quarters, and their force soon increased to 10,000 men. While these events were in progress, Bagnal Beauchamp Harvey, Edward Fitzgerald, and John Henry Colclough, three of the most respectable Protestant gentlemen in the county, were arrested and lodged in Wexford gaol; and on arrival of the fugitives from Oulart, the Cork militia could with difficulty be restrained from assassinating them. On the 29th, the magistrates, sensibly alarmed,

admitted them to bail, and solicited Colclough and Fitzgerald to proceed to Enniscorthy, and prevail on the insurgents not to attack Wexford, while they detained Harvey as a hostage for their return. On their arrival in the camp, they found the people undecided as to whether they should attack Wexford, New Ross, or Newtonbarry ; and many of them were so satisfied with the result of their recent victories, that they were for separating and returning home. The appearance of Fitzgerald and Colclough roused them to further action ; and while the former was detained in the camp, the latter returned to Wexford, towards which the main body of the insurgents also proceeded, and encamped at the Three Rocks, within about three miles of the town. In the mean time, a detachment of 200 of the Donegall militia had been dispatched from Duncannon Fort by General Faucett, who promised to come in person with further reinforcements. These were, however, cut off in their approach, with the loss of two pieces of artillery ; the general with difficulty regaining the fort. The Wexford garrison, ignorant of this event, and expecting support from Faucett, made a sortie, in which a lieutenant-colonel of militia was killed ; and the troops fled into the town, which they subsequently evacuated, after burning the barracks ; and on their way to Duncannon committing the most brutal outrages, firing the chapels and cabins, and not even sparing the women or children in their excesses. The victorious Wexfordians now took possession of the town, and Harvey was released and vested with the command in chief ; and orders were issued by him, calculated to protect property and preserve life. That excesses would be committed by a force so organized, and by men smarting under the recent lash of persecution, was to be expected ; but, although there were some partial acts of pillage committed, they did not sack the town, burn the Protestant church, murder or torture their prisoners by flogging or pitch caps, nor violate, stab, or strangle women and children ; and on the following morning, at the instance of the inhabitants, they retired from the town. Their force, which had been considerably increased, was now formed into two divisions : one of these, commanded by Harvey, marched on Taghmon, and the other, under the Rev. Michael Murphy, proceeded to Gorey. This false step ultimately proved fatal to the popular cause. Their course was clearly to have kept

their whole force intact, and to have advanced with celerity on the metropolis. The royal army was panic-stricken and disheartened by recent defeats, and the government paralyzed by this unexpected movement. In their march they would have been joined by the population of Wicklow and Kildare ; and their approach would have been the signal for Dublin, where there were 30,000 united Irishmen to have risen in arms.

The measures taken by the inhabitants favourable to the movement, were judicious and well calculated to protect the town. Mathew Keugh, who had been a captain in the king's army, and recently dismissed the magistracy by Lord Clare, was appointed military governor. The town was divided into wards, which were regularly guarded by armed men, and strict discipline observed ; every parish had a division of militia, which appointed its own officers ; the forges were kept at full work in fabricating pikes ; and the entrance to the harbour was commanded by three pieces of cannon on fort Rosleare, and several hulks placed ready to be scuttled on the bar, should armed vessels present themselves. Four barges were fitted out, each with twenty-five armed men, which cruised in the offing, and brought in all vessels laden with grain or provisions ; one of these captured a vessel from Arklow, with Lord Kingsborough, colonel of the North Cork militia, and two of his officers on board, proceeding by sea to join their regiment, which they deemed safer than by land.

The division of the insurgent army, under the Rev. Michael Murphy, after defeating the royalists at Gorey, on the 4th June, and taking possession of that town, remained inactive until the 9th ; the repulse of the other division under Harvey, at Ross, having occurred in the interim, which, in some degree, restored confidence to the royal troops, and enabled the government to take measures to oppose its advance on the capital, which now, when too late, was determined on. The different garrisons in its rear, which, however, had little disposition to move, were kept in check by the insurgent encampments in their respective neighbourhoods ; and the main body at Gorey, which had hitherto been successful, and was now increased to 30,000 men, marched on Arklow, expecting to make an easy conquest of it, as the garrison only consisted of 1,000 men, mostly

irregulars, including the Ancient Britons and a few yeomanry cavalry. The government, however, informed of this movement, made vigorous exertions to frustrate it, and every vehicle the metropolis could afford was put in requisition to convey reinforcements to the scene of action. When the Wexford army, therefore, approached Arklow they found the garrison increased to 1,600 effective men well prepared for action, under General Needham. The battle commenced on the south side of the town, where the British infantry had taken up a strong position with two cannon at either extremity. That portion of the insurgents, armed with guns, were drawn up in front of this line partially protected by a low hedge; their ordnance only consisted of a few swivels; but they had thousands of pikemen on a neighbouring eminence, should their opponents falter or show a disposition to retreat, ready to charge and annihilate them. The firing was continued in these positions for some time without much loss on either side, when the insurgents made a vigorous onset, driving in the enemy's outposts, and pushing some yeomanry cavalry into the river; they also dismounted one of the guns and killed the gunners. General Needham and his staff became alarmed, and consulted Colonel Skerrett, of the Dumbarton fencibles, second in command, on the propriety of retreating, who resolutely refused to retire, contending that, although victory might be doubtful, flight would be instantaneous and certain destruction. There was a short supply of ammunition on both sides, but that of the insurgents was first exhausted, and nothing remained but to charge with the pike, which was gallantly led by the Rev. Michael Murphy; and in a determined effort to gain the town he was killed by a cannon ball in front of the line. This so dispirited the assailants that they retreated, but in good order, to their camp at Gorey, while the garrison, feeling no disposition to pursue them, retired to their barracks in the town. The battle of Arklow, like that of New Ross, although a drawn one, was tantamount to a defeat of the insurgents, whose march on the metropolis it effectually stopped, and by that means tended materially to check the spirit of revolt. For several days after this event a savage and predatory warfare ensued, and most ferocious cruelties were perpetrated on both sides. It now became evident to the government, that the insurrection in

Wexford could only be suppressed by sending an overwhelming force to operate against and destroy the encampment on Vinegar Hill, which the people kept possession of from 28th May to the 20th June, in defiance of the numerous commanders and large military force stationed in the surrounding districts. These garrisons were now ordered to form a junction near Vinegar Hill without coming to any partial engagement, and their force was to be augmented to 20,000 men with a suitable train of artillery, under the command of Lieutenant-General Lake. The march of these divisions to the scene of action was traced in blood, and with all the attendant horrors of the most savage warfare. Crowds of people flying before this army of devastation were hourly pouring into Wexford from all quarters ; and the details they gave of the frightful atrocities committed by it, irritated and inflamed the people to fury. The safety of the prisoners confined in Wexford had been a matter of considerable anxiety to the governor, the Catholic clergy, and inhabitants of the town for some days, and on the morning of the 20th, those in arms, who had joined the movement, marched out to the Three Rocks to take part in the coming engagement. A few only remained to guard or rather protect the prisoners. Captain Dixon, master of a Wexford trader, a man of uncouth and ferocious character, with a gang of forty or fifty drunken ruffians who regarded him as their leader, took advantage of this circumstance, and clamoured loudly for retaliation on the prisoners in their custody. Followed by an immense cavalcade, which had been to Colonel le Hunt's house, at Atrament, he entered the town, exhibiting a fire-screen, extracted from thence, on which were depicted some heterogeneous figures connected with heathen mythology, and bordered with orange fringe and tassels. This he represented to the people as the insignia of an orange lodge held there, and the contortions of the figures as emblematical of the tortures intended for the Catholics on the Orangemen being again restored to power. The colonel, who had been at large in the town, was now dragged to prison by Dixon and an infuriated multitude. Seven persons were appointed to try the prisoners, on the charge of being Orangemen ; but four of these were favourable to them, and Dixon, having failed in his blood-thirsty designs, was about to leave the town with his

party, when two of the prisoners, O'Connor and Jackson, acknowledged themselves Orangemen, and proposed to Dixon, if their lives were spared, to inform against their associates. The first man that these wretches named, was dragged out and shot at the gaol door; eighteen other prisoners were marched, under a strong guard, headed by Dixon and flanked by the Orange informers, who underwent the mockery of a trial in a billiard-room on the quay, where Dixon presided. A word from the informers, and conviction followed, and the victims were led to the bridge guarded by their butchers, and preceded by a black flag with a white cross, and the letters M. S. W. on it, which some prejudiced writers have interpreted "Murder without sin," to show that the Wexford insurrection was concocted for Popish purposes. But the late Mr. Crofton Croker deciphers these letters more truly, as "Marksmen of Schelmaliers Wexford," a very important corps in the insurgent army; and probably the colour of the flag indicated that they neither took nor gave quarter. The unfortunate prisoners, however, were brought to the place of execution on the bridge, where an appeal was made to the multitude to know if any could demonstrate that the intended victim had ever performed an action sufficiently good to save his life. A few were rescued by the bold and humane interference of those present, but the majority were piked or shot and their bodies thrown into the river. This horrible butchery had continued for some time, and was at length put an end to by the courageous and pious interference of a Catholic priest and an insurgent officer badly wounded. The Rev. Mr. Corrin had been absent from town, attending his parochial duties, early in the day, and had just returned, and was sent for by Mr. Kellet who was on his defence on the bridge, to which he immediately repaired, and having thrown himself on his knees, supplicated God to show them the same mercy that they would extend to the prisoners about to be dispatched, and having appealed to their feelings as men as well as Christians, he succeeded not only in saving Mr. Kellet, but several others, who had been doomed to death by Dixon. Mr. Esmond Kyan, who had been wounded in the shoulder at the battle of Arklow, and lay in great torture in a house in Ferrybank, on hearing of what was going forward, ran to the fatal spot and saved the lives of Mr. Newton King

and Captain Milward of the Wexford Militia ; and Edward Roche, who commanded at the Three Rocks, snatched Mr. Goodall and others from certain death ; and even some of the humbler classes interfered and saved several of their neighbours. The number of persons massacred on the bridge has been greatly exaggerated ; but Mr. Edward Hay, who was on the spot, and wrote a work on the Wexford insurrection, states the number to be thirty-six.

While this disgraceful and sanguinary scene was performing in Wexford, General Lake was completing his arrangements to attack the camp at Vinegar Hill so effectually that not a man should escape the carnage. The several divisions of the army had arrived, with the exception of General Needham's from Arklow ; and early on the morning of the 21st of June an assault was made on the town of Enniscorthy, by that under General Johnson ; while the main army formed into four columns, and, commanded by General Lake in person, attacked the camp on Vinegar Hill. This position, although it commanded the town, was ill-chosen for a general encampment. The hill itself is neither lofty nor extensive, and presents no natural barrier to an attack, to which it is open on all sides, and even to the apex easy of access. Those who defended it, therefore, must have been possessed of indomitable courage to have fought in such a position and against such an army and artillery for two hours, with scarcely a weapon of offence except the pike. One piece of cannon was their whole ordnance, and their ammunition - two charges of powder. They were in expectation of receiving reinforcements from the Three Rocks, under the command of Edward Roche, but these had only left that station the evening before, and were still on the road. They had, therefore, nothing to oppose to this simultaneous attack at four points but the pike, with which they did fearful execution on the advancing columns. It was now, however, evident that no valour could resist such an overwhelming force, and at length, amidst a shower of balls and shells, and enveloped in flame, they commenced their retreat towards Wexford, through the narrow pass intended to have been occupied by General Needham's division. The British cavalry here attempted to cut them off, but at this critical moment, the reinforcement, under Edward Roche, appeared, and he, with great ability, covered

their retreat until they entered a country in which neither artillery nor cavalry could operate. In this condition they reached the camp at the Three Rocks, and prepared to sell their lives as dearly as possible. The attack on Enniscorthy was equally successful, although the garrison fought with a courage similar to that displayed on the neighbouring hill; its brave defenders, however, were equally deficient in ammunition, a few pounds of powder being their sole magazine. Commanded by Edward Fitzgerald, of Newpark, they kept possession of the town for two hours, and sustained the cannonade of an immense park of artillery, which committed dreadful havoc in their ranks. At length, they also were obliged to give way and evacuate the town, and then commenced the usual atrocities attendant on the success of the royal arms, which disgraced its cause. Independent of the usual plundering, burnings, and murders committed, the royalists, now victorious, aided by their foreign mercenaries, the Hessians, set fire to an hospital containing upwards of fifty wounded patients incapable of resistance or flight. This burning is attempted to be extenuated by the Rev. Mr. Gordon, a Protestant clergyman, who wrote a history of these events, which states that it was not intended to burn the hospital, but, in the act of shooting the patients in their beds, the wadding of one of the guns presented too close to the victim, set fire to the bed-clothes and caused the catastrophe. The surrounding country was now scoured by the soldiery, and every human being they met with put to death. Old men and young children, and even idiots, shared the same fate, and abominations even worse than death were perpetrated against the women. To avoid such horrors as these, and sensible that a successful defence against three armies marching on Wexford was out of the question, the reflecting portion of the inhabitants sought, through Lord Kingsborough, to obtain terms for the town. A meeting was held at Captain Keugh's house, at which his lordship attended, and it was resolved that the town should be surrendered to him as military commander, and that Dr. Jacobs should be reinstated as mayor. These terms were virtually carried into effect, and Captain Keugh delivered his sword to his lordship, who wrote dispatches to the several commanders approaching the town, announcing its surrender, and that he had pledged

himself in the most solemn manner to protect the persons and property of the inhabitants who had not been concerned in the recent murders, which had been committed principally by men from the northern part of the county. With one of these dispatches and a letter from the late revolutionary governor, Keugh, to the same effect, Mr. Edward Hay and Captain MacManus, of the Antrim militia, were deputed by the inhabitants of all sects and the people at large, to propose to General Lake that they would lay down their arms and return to their allegiance provided their persons were protected and the town saved from pillage and destruction; with difficulty they reached Enniscorthy, and obtained an interview with the commander-in-chief, who refused peremptorily to guarantee the pledges made by Lord Kingsborough, and sent back for answer, "That he would not attend to any terms proposed by rebels with arms in their hands against their sovereign. To Lord Kingsborough he sent no reply, but ordered Hay to return with him without loss of time, and should anything happen to his lordship or any of the other prisoners, he would most assuredly sack and burn the town; a consummation which this ferocious and cruel man intended, and was only prevented from carrying into effect, by the nearer approach to it of another British officer, Sir John Moore, his superior now in humanity, as he subsequently proved himself to be in military capacity. This general, with a considerable force from Taghmon, advanced on the town, and accepted its surrender in the usual form, and Wexford was saved! The commander-in-chief, when he arrived, was obliged to acquiesce in the conditions, and he entered the town apparently in peace. No sooner, however, had the royal troops taken possession of it, than a court-martial was formed of seven instead of the usual number of thirteen members, who, from a subsequent parliamentary investigation, it appears, were not even sworn. This body, as illegally constituted as even that formed by Dixon, proceeded, in defiance of the compact entered into with Lord Kingsborough and ratified by Sir John Moore, to order the arrest of every person who had taken an active part in the late revolt, and who had the credulity to remain in Wexford and trust their lives in such hands, notwithstanding the solemn engagements entered into that they would be protected. The Rev. Philip Roche, who came in alone to obtain terms for him-

self and a party who were ready to lay down their arms and return to their homes, was most ignominiously abused, and more dead than alive thrown into prison. Captain Keugh was arrested at Lord Kingsborough's lodgings, where he had remained since the surrender. Cornelius Grogan, a gentleman of large estate, old and infirm, and scarcely able to walk, was arrested at his seat, Johnstown Castle. Harvey, who had returned to Bargey, so little apprehensive of danger that he sent some fat cattle into town for the use of the troops, but the return of his drover convinced him of his error, and he proceeded to join his friend Colclough, who had previously taken refuge in one of the Saltee islands, where two days after both were arrested. All these, and many more, were brought before this court-martial, and sentence of death pronounced against them, which was instantaneously put in execution, and their bodies, with the exception of Colclough's, savagely mutilated by the yeomanry and soldiery, while General Lake and the members of the court who condemned them, and even Lord Kingsborough, made merry at dinner. His lordship, relieved from his fears, took little or no trouble to insist on the fulfilment of the terms he had made with his deluded victims, and in the most heartless manner connived at the execution of men who at the risk of their own lives had protected his when in jeopardy. This man, afterwards Earl of Kingston, finished his career in a lunatic asylum, and Lake was recalled on the 28th of June to figure most ingloriously soon after in another quarter of the kingdom. He was succeeded in the command of Wexford by General Hunter, a man of humane and conciliatory disposition, well calculated to restore the county to peace, and allay the irritated feelings and indignation of the people at the late act of treachery that had been perpetrated against them. He soon found that the greatest difficulty he had to encounter was the vindictive and sanguinary acts of the ascendancy faction, who had originally goaded the people into rebellion, and were now making every effort to do so again. It was confidently asserted that a general massacre of the Protestants was resolved on, and that meetings of rebels for that purpose were held in the Meccamores, a large and populous portion of the county; and informations, founded on affidavits and supported by magisterial influence, were transmitted to Dublin Castle to that effect. These

communications carried with them such conviction, that orders were sent to General Hunter and other officers in and contiguous to this devoted district, to form a cordon along its whole extremity by land for the purpose of exterminating the inhabitants. Fortunately, these orders were subject to the approval of the general, who, instead of putting them in execution, had a searching and minute inquiry made into the statement, and found it to be a foul and villainous conspiracy, and could with difficulty be restrained from bringing the concoctors before their favourite tribunal—a court martial. The remnant of the Wexford army that had retreated from Vinegar Hill and Enniscorthy, was disposed to surrender on the terms entered into with Lord Kingsborough; but, hearing of their breach, and the sanguinary scenes enacted in Wexford, the men who composed it determined on rather falling with arms in their hands, than allow themselves to be basely betrayed and put to death in cold blood. On retiring from the Three Rocks encampment, they disposed themselves into two divisions. One of these marched westward, through the county of Carlow into Kilkenny, where, on the 23rd June, it had some severe skirmishing with the force under Sir Charles Asgill, and on the following day captured and burnt the town of Castlecomer; it then passed rapidly into the Queen's county. The leaders expected that, by making a bold and vigorous demonstration, the people of these counties would have risen and joined them; but in this they were disappointed, the news of the recent defeats had disheartened them; and the Wexfordians, worn down by fatigue, and harassed by the king's troops, retraced their steps homewards. On the night of the 25th, they encamped on Kilcommín Hill, and early the following morning were alarmed by discharges of the royal artillery, and the appearance of an army of 2,000 men, who had imperceptibly approached them, favoured by a dense fog. To hazard an engagement at such fearful odds was out of the question, and they effected what only remained for them, to force their way through Scollagh-gap and re-enter Wexford. Most of them dispersed to their homes and appeared no more in arms; but a few still held together and joined Fitzgerald and Roche in Wicklow. These chiefs commanded the other division of the Wexford army, which had taken a northerly

direction on proceeding from the Three Rocks, and, eluding the vigilance of the numerous royalist commanders, formed a junction at Ballymanus on the 24th with the Wicklow insurgents, under General Holt. On the following day they attacked Hacketstown, but were repulsed after a conflict of nine hours, with great loss. They then marched south, with a view of surprising Carnew, a place regarded by both parties of considerable importance. General Needham, who was stationed at Gorey, had timely notice of this movement, and dispatched a strong force of cavalry to intercept them on their march. The insurgents, aware of the approach of this force, took their measures accordingly, and selected Ballyellis, on the road to Carnew, to wait their arrival. On the cavalry charging their advanced guard, it gave way, as previously arranged, and the whole body retreated, apparently in disorder, into a deep and narrow defile, formed by thick-set hedges on both sides, vigorously pursued by their opponents, who were no sooner within these hedges than a raking fire was opened on them from hundreds of invisible musketeers. They were soon thrown into confusion, and attempted to retreat, but that was found impracticable; the entrance to this avenue in the interim had been closed with cars and baggage, and 100 musketeers guarded the barricade. All was now panic and despair; hundreds of horses and men were crowded and compressed together; resistance and flight were equally vain; the carnage was frightful, and only a few escaped to record the disaster at Carnew. So perished Sir W. Watkin Wynn's regiment of ancient Britons, a corps which had perpetrated such atrocities, that it was even more detested by the people than the Hessians. Gordon records an act of theirs which could scarcely be equalled by the most ferocious cannibals: After the battle of Arklow, they embowelled the Rev. Michael Murphy, took out his heart, which they threw to the dogs, and roasted the body and greased their boots with the substance that dripped from it. Notwithstanding the decided success of this affair, in which the insurgents did not lose a man, they were repulsed in their attack on Carnew; and the Wexford men, separating from their Wicklow associates, undertook a more distant and difficult enterprise than any they had yet attempted. They entered the county Kildare, where they organized a kind of guerilla cavalry, by

impressing 800 horses, on which 1,600 men were mounted, each horse carrying a pikeman and a musketeer. Proceeding rapidly on, they came almost within view of the metropolis, and passing through the county Meath, crossed the Boyne and entered Louth. The rapidity of this movement left the royal forces in doubt as to their object and point of attack, and such garrisons as attempted to stop their progress were successively defeated. But they failed to rouse the people of Meath and Louth to join the movement, which was the principal object of the expedition. After forcing two military stations north-west of Dublin, and approaching within seven miles of the city itself, and having traversed upwards of 400 miles in a fortnight, with scarcely a day's rest without fighting, this remnant of the insurgent army of Wexford was completely routed by a strong force of cavalry and infantry, under Captain Gordon, of the Dumfries light dragoons, at the village of Ballyboghil, ten miles north of the capital. Fitzgerald and a few others kept together, and joined Aylmer in Kildare, and were included by that chief, in his capitulation with General Dundas, on the 12th July. This terminated the Wexford insurrectionary movement, six weeks after, and 100 miles distant from where it first commenced; but the people of Wexford had been for some time previously reconciling themselves with the constituted authorities; and General Hunter's wise, politic, and pacific course had won their confidence, and induced them in crowds to come in and deliver up their arms, and take out certificates of protection, which gradually had the effect of restoring both town and country to peace.

Harbour Improvements.—The harbour of Wexford is formed by the estuary of the Slaney, extending eight miles from N. to S., and comprising an area of 14,000 acres; but its bar, on which at neap tides there are only eleven feet of water, must have seriously affected its trade. At the quays, however, there is a greater depth, and even at low water vessels of moderate tonnage lie afloat along-side; those requiring more water lighten or discharge their cargoes in South bay, where there are good shelter and anchorage. The Wexford Harbour Improvement Company has thrown up an embankment on the north side of the river, by which 2,000 acres of waste land were

reclaimed in 1850, and have been since under cultivation ; and in 1854 it has by similar means on the south side enclosed 3,000 acres. Operations are also in progress for deepening the bar and channel from thence to the quays. Under the 6th and 7th Vic. c. 41, the management of the harbour has been placed in the hands of fifty-one Commissioners then named, and constituting every other inhabitant a commissioner, who occupied a house or premises for twelve months within the Borough, rated to the poor at £21 and upwards, and possessed of a real or personal estate of £500 over his just debts. They were empowered by this Act to raise by mortgage or loan a sum not exceeding £6,000 on the revenue of the harbour, to be derived from tonnage dues, ballast, or pilotage, the former not to exceed 5d. per ton on vessels of the United Kingdom. Foreign vessels to pay 1s. a ton ; for supplying ballast, 1s. 3d. per ton ; discharging it, 2d. per ton ; pilotage, 5d. per ton on vessels with cargo inwards and outwards ; but those in ballast, or discharging a portion of their cargo, to pay only 4d. a ton. Steamers to pay one half pilotage ; the charge for ballast, however, is only 10d. per ton. The Commissioners make up their accounts annually. The receipts for the year ending 31st March, 1845, were £2,487 ; and for 1854, £2,105 10s. 5d. The expenditure for the latter year was £1,947 14s. 5d. The particulars of both are as follows :—

RECEIPTS.			EXPENDITURE.		
Balance on hand, 31st March, 1853	£127	1 2	Paid for supplying Ballast	£118	16 10
Tonnage or Quayage			Ditto Pilotage, repairing Pilot-boats, &c....	861	3 4
Dues	934	10 0	Ditto Repairing and lighting the Quays ...	252	9 6
Ballast.....	153	12 2	Ditto Interest and part of Debt.....	353	5 9
Pilotage	817	11 9	Ditto Salaries of Officers, Rent, Harbour, Police, &c.	285	3 4
Pilot-boat sold.....	141	0 2	Ditto Harbour Embankment, Law Costs	76	15 8
Pipe water, fines, crana-ge, &c.	58	16 2	Balance in the hands of Treasurer.....	284	17 0
	£2,232	11 5		£2,232	11 5

From this it appears that the harbour receipts had fallen off since 1845, £381. The Commissioners owe on debentures £2,565 8s. 3d., and on mortgage and arrear of interest £1,061 7s. 0d. ; total debt, £3,626 15s. 3d. There are a Harbour Master and sixteen pilots belonging to this port.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—Formerly coarse woollen cloth was manufactured here to some extent ; and at Tintern, linen, diaper, and woollens were woven, and a yarn-market and linen-hall established there ; but they no longer exist. Nearly 40 years ago a cotton mill was erected at St. John's, near Enniscorthy, which was only worked a few years and then discontinued. Some exertions have been made to introduce the cultivation of flax into the county, and a scutching mill of six shocks has been erected about three miles distant in the barony of Forth, and three others more remote from the town. On the Slaney, about fourteen miles from Wexford, there is an extensive cotton-mill at full work ; and at Bishopswater an old established distillery, which continued to work even through the Temperance movement, and its whiskey is held in high estimation. There are two extensive steam mills, which manufacture flour, oat, and Indian corn meal ; but the principal manufacture of Wexford is malt. In 1831, there were 38 houses in the town, which made nearly 80,000 barrels of malt, principally for the Dublin market. There are 3 breweries, 4 tan-yards, 3 rope-walks, 3 soap and candle, and 1 tobacco manufactories ; 1 foundry ; and an establishment employing a number of females in embroidering muslins and other fancy work. The commerce of Wexford, particularly with Great Britain, has latterly diminished. There is no foreign export trade ; and the imports consist of square timber and deals from the Baltic and British America, and latterly wheat and Indian corn from the Black Sea. The exports to Great Britain and coastways are grain, flour, oatmeal, malt, salmon, cattle, pigs, poultry, eggs, oysters, &c., and estimated by the railway commissioners in 1835 at £312,136 ; and the imports, which consist of coals, slates, bricks, iron, tea, sugar, coffee, rice, brandy, wine, tobacco, hides, and British manufactured articles, at £627,417 ; and latterly foreign wheat and Indian corn have been also imported from thence. The following tables will best show the trade of the port from 1840 to 1854 :

WEXFORD.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of this Port, distinguishing the Foreign from the British and Coasting Shipping; the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels registered; and the Customs' Duties collected therein for the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, and contrasting the five years then ending with the five preceding years.

Years ending January 5th.	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										Registered Shipping.		Customs' Duties Collected.										
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coasting Trade.					Total Inwards.					Foreign Trade.								British and Coasting Trade.					Total Outwards.				
	British.		Foreign.			Total.					British.		Foreign.			Total.								British.		Foreign.			Total.				
	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.		Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.		
1841	15	2660	4	694	19	3354	794	65856	813	69210	6	1349	4	694	10	2043	459	38340	469	40383	106	7181	9838										
1842	13	3308	2	250	15	3558	754	54091	769	57649	5	1313	2	250	7	1563	514	41864	521	43447	116	8756	9711										
1843	7	1332	4	912	11	2244	915	94985	926	97229	1	250	1	250	443	37820	444	37570	110	8728	9101										
1844	12	2396	12	2396	735	51204	747	53600	8	1862	8	1862	552	38643	560	40505	104	8459	8746										
1845	6	1083	4	384	10	1467	797	53510	807	54977	3	649	1	139	4	788	605	44717	609	45505	102	8349	9473										
Increase ..	53	10779	14	2240	67	13019	3995	319646	4062	332665	23	5423	7	1083	30	6506	2573	200904	2603	207410	538	41473	46364										
1846	18	2812	1	176	19	2988	822	55284	841	58272	7	1322	7	1322	631	40567	638	41898	104	7775	11662										
1847	19	3313	1	75	20	3388	853	55153	873	58541	14	1800	1	75	15	1875	615	38774	630	40649	109	7876	13525										
1848	39	5173	8	956	47	6129	642	42577	689	48706	22	2759	1	77	23	2836	388	27248	411	30084	113	9036	14791										
1849	18	3277	15	1760	33	5037	646	45672	679	50709	11	2345	11	2345	511	37365	522	39710	107	8406	17564										
1850	37	5552	13	1229	50	6781	751	45708	801	52489	35	4861	8	809	43	5670	557	34348	600	40018	110	8967	19561										
5 years '46 to '50 ..	131	20127	38	4196	169	24323	3714	244394	3883	268717	89	13087	10	961	99	14048	2702	178311	12801	192359	543	42060	77103										
5 years '41 to '45 ..	53	10779	14	2240	67	13019	3995	319646	4062	332665	23	5423	7	1083	30	6506	2573	200904	2603	207410	538	41473	46364										
10 years '41 to '50 ..	184	30906	52	6436	236	37342	7709	564040	7945	601382	112	18510	17	2044	129	20554	5275	379215	5404	399769	1081	83533	123467										
Increase ..	78	9348	24	1956	102	11304	281	75252	179	63948	66	7664	3	122	69	7549	129	22593	198	15051	5	587	30739										
								Decrease.	Decrease.	Decrease.		Increase.		Decr.	Increase.	Inc.	Decr.	Decr.	Inc.	Decr.		Incr.											

These Tables show, that during the ten years ending 5th January, 1850, there entered this port from Foreign ports tonnage to the extent of 37,342 tons, of which 6,436 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways 594,040 tons: total Inwards 601,382 tons. That tonnage to the extent of 20,554 tons cleared out for Foreign ports, of which 2,044 tons were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastways 379,215 tons: total Outwards 399,769 tons. There were registered in the same period, belonging to this port, 1,081 vessels of 83,633 tons, and the Customs' duties collected therein were £123,467. Comparing the five years ending 5th January, 1850, with the five preceding years, there was an increase on the Foreign trade Inwards of 11,304 tons, of which 1,966 tons were Foreign Shipping; and on that with Great Britain and Coastways there was a decrease of 76,252 tons: being a decrease on the total trade Inwards of 63,948 tons. The increase Outwards on the Foreign trade was 7,542 tons, but there was a decrease of 122 tons on the Foreign shipping, and of 22,593 tons on the trade with Great Britain and Coastways; total decrease Outwards 15,051 tons. There were registered in the five last years, more than in the former period, 5 vessels and 587 tons; but the actual increase of 1850 over 1845 was 8 vessels and 618 tons, and on the Customs' Duties for the five years £30,739.

The tonnage entering inwards and clearing out of this port, the registered shipping belonging thereto, and the customs' revenue collected therein, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, were as follows :—

Years ending 5 Jan.	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.			Registered Shipping Tons.	Customs' Duties collected. £
	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Trade. Tons.	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Trade. Tons.	Foreign Trade. Tons.	Brit. and Coasting Trade. Tons.		
1851..	4,961	980	39,681 ..	4,636	351	31,812..	9,034	16,333
1852..	5,744	1,179	42,042 ..	4,709	923	30,417..	9,068	14,715
1853..	6,105	1,270	34,655 ..	2,822	309	31,156..	8,078	16,650
1854..	4,090	2,143	35,734 ..	2,449	598	33,785..	8,666	15,712

The trade of this port, therefore, for the year ending 5th January, 1851, was 10,928 tons Foreign, and 71,493 tons in the British and Coasting trade. In 1852 the Foreign trade was 12,555 tons, and the British and Coasting 72,459 tons : being an increase on the former of 1,627 tons, and on the latter of 966 tons. In 1853 the Foreign trade was 10,506 tons, and the British and Coasting 65,811 tons : being a decrease on the former of 2,049 tons, and on the latter 6,648 tons. In 1854 the Foreign trade was 9,280 tons, and the British and Coasting 69,519 tons : being a decrease on the former of 1,226 tons, and an increase on the latter of 3,708 tons. The registered shipping, which consisted of 106 vessels of 9,034 tons in 1851, decreased eight vessels and 368 tons in 1854 ; and there was also a decrease of £621 in the customs' duties. There are no steamers belonging to this port ; but there is one which trades between it and Liverpool weekly. The number of persons employed in collecting the customs' revenue of this port in 1849, was fifty-five, whose joint salaries amounted to £1,154 17s. 4d. The Wexford coast fishery extends to the east bank of Bannow ferry, comprising a maritime boundary of 68 miles, and in 1851 there were 448 vessels and 2,059 men and boys employed in it. There is also a considerable take of salmon on the Slaney. The herring fishery was very considerable here until the bounty for curing them was withdrawn, when it declined. The Nymph bank, and the splendid fishing ground off the Saltee islands, ought to render the pursuit on this part of the coast a profitable undertaking. It is strange, too, that a port which cured 120,000 barrels of herrings in 1654, and exported 80,000 barrels, does not now cure, much

less export, a single barrel. Complaints, however, are made, that there are not a sufficient number of small harbours for the protection of fishing vessels, and the Board of Works should be called upon to establish them where they are most required.

The Public Buildings are—The Chamber of Commerce, established in 1831, on the Crescent Quay. The Town House. The Custom House. The Court House, a neat structure, consisting of a centre and two wings, and entered under a pediment supported by two columns. The County Gaol and House of Correction. The Mechanics' Institute and Literary Association. The County Infirmary. The Lying-in Hospital. The News Room and Library. The barracks, capable of accommodating 190 officers and men. The Redmond Female Orphan House, built on a portion of the lands of the College of St. Peter, at a cost of £1,900, derived from a bequest of the late W. Redmond, of Bettyville, and a donation of John H. Talbot, Esq. of Talbot Hall. The house supports thirty-four female orphans without religious distinction, and is principally maintained by a bequest of £120 from the founder under the superintendence of the Catholic bishop and five other trustees. The Union Workhouse, built to contain 980 inmates, and two auxiliary houses for 520 more. The Union comprises an area of 128,801 acres and a population of 52,872 persons, in thirty-three electoral divisions, represented by 37 elected and 37 *ex-officio* guardians. The property rated to the poor in 1853, was valued at £99,510, and the expenditure £7,427. The rate in aid levied in this union in 1851 and 1852, was £1,195 11s. 7d.; and none issued for its support. There is a school in the house in connexion with the National Board of Education, in which 252 males and 239 females received instruction in 1853.

Houses of Religious Worship.—In 1615 there were thirty churches in this town, the ruins of many of them yet to be seen, particularly those of St. Peter and St. Paul Selsker. There are now two Protestant and four Catholic Churches, a Franciscan monastery, and two Convents of the Sisters of Mercy and Presentation Order, established in 1818. One Presbyterian, one Independent, and two Wesleyan

meeting-houses. The Protestant Church of St. Selsker is a small edifice, erected at a cost of £1,400, on the site of the ancient church of that name, the body of which communicates with its venerable tower. The Church of St. Iberius was built towards the close of the eighteenth century; it has been since repaired, the Ecclesiastical Commissioners contributing £252 towards the expense. The Catholic Parish Church. The Church of the Franciscans, used as that of the Wexford Union. This order settled here in 1380, and obtained possession of the suppressed Monastery of the Knights Hospitallers. The present brotherhood consists of a guardian and six friars. The convent contains a valuable library of theological and other works. The Church of St. John and St. Bridget is a large commodious edifice. The Convent of the Sisters of the Presentation Order contains a small chapel elegantly fitted up, towards which the Countess of Shrewsbury contributed £200; it is open to the public on Sundays, as well as that of the College of St. Peter. The Presbyterian, Independent, and Wesleyan places of worship, are well adapted for the purpose.

The Educational Institutions are—The College of St. Peter, Summerhill, founded out of a bequest by the Rev. Peter Devereux, P.P., of Kilmore, to be appropriated to the education of two students for the priesthood in a foreign college, which, from the operation of the penal laws, they were prohibited from obtaining at home. The relaxation of the code, and the long continuance of the war, induced the trustees to sink the money in land, which was vested in the Catholic bishop and two clergymen of the diocese of Ferns; and the College was erected out of the proceeds. The building forms a quadrangle in the Gothic style, with a spire 140 feet high, the interior surrounded by a colonnade enclosing an area of 130 feet square. It has accommodation for six professors, thirty resident pupils, and 150 day scholars. Protestant children are admitted without any interference with their religious principles. The National Schools of the parish of St. John, where 320 male children are educated. The schools of the Sisters of Mercy and the Presentation order, where 855 female children are educated, and taught by the nuns sewing and embroidering muslin; these schools derive sup-

port from the National Board. The Christian Brothers' two schools, where 400 male pupils are educated at a nominal charge. The schools exclusively Protestant are—St. Patrick's Parochial Schools, supported by voluntary contributions and a bequest from Erasmus Smith's Charity. The Diocesan School, which in 1852 had fifty-four pupils, three of whom were taught gratis; and an Orphan School supported by private subscription. There are also four Female Benefit schools, which educate and board children of all religious denominations at various rates.

There are branches established here of the Bank of Ireland, the Provincial and National Banks of Ireland. The Savings Bank in November, 1853, had 704 depositors, whose lodgments amounted to £22,734, at £2 10s. per cent.; and a small Loan Fund of £85 gave accommodation in 1853 to the extent of £212.

The amount of postage, excise, and stamps collected in Wexford, for the four years ending 5th January, 1854, was—

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Postage.....	£964	924	1,128	1,173
Excise	76,292	68,460	74,075	75,477
Stamps	3,652	3,961	2,903	4,223

The newspapers published in Wexford are three—the *Independent*, twice a week; the *Guardian*, and the *People*, every Saturday.

Proceeding north from Wexford Haven, Cahore point is passed, and Arklow light-ship distinguished, moored off Kilmichael point, on the south end of Arklow bank, in 16 fathoms water, 52° 42' N., 6° 0' 20" W.; the lantern, at an elevation of 25 feet, exhibits a fixed light, and carries a ball, seen at a distance of nine miles. ARKLOW is a branch of the port of Dublin, and is fifty miles S. by E. of that city. In 1841 it contained 538 houses and 3,254 inhabitants; in 1851 it had 560 houses and 3,360 inhabitants, being a small increase on both. It is situated on the river Ovoca, which, after winding through the romantic and beautiful vale of that name, so justly celebrated in Moore's minstrelsy, passes under a bridge of nineteen arches, and at a short distance from the town falls into the sea. The harbour

is only accessible to very small craft, as the channel is shallow, and the entrance interrupted by shifting sands. 200 boats are employed in the season in catching herrings and oysters ; the latter are sent in large quantities to Dublin and England. Formerly, most of the ore produced by the Wicklow mines was shipped here, but it is now more generally sent to Wicklow for that purpose. The Railway Commissioners estimated its exports in 1835, at £3,500, and its imports at £6,500.

On Wicklow head there are two lighthouses, $52^{\circ} 58' N.$, $6^{\circ} W.$; the lantern of one of these is 251 feet above the level of the sea, and displays a fixed white light, seen at a distance of 21 miles ; the lantern of the other is 121 feet high, and exhibits a similar light, seen at 16 miles distance.

WICKLOW is another branch of the port of Dublin, and about 24 miles S.S.E. of that city. In 1841 it contained 458 houses and 2,794 inhabitants ; in 1851 the houses increased to 537, and the inhabitants to 3,141. It returned two members to the Irish parliament, but was disfranchised by the Act of union. The harbour is formed by the river Vantrey, but it is only accessible to vessels of small burden, owing to its shallow bar, on which there are only eight feet of water at spring tides and five at neaps. Its trade is consequently confined, and its exports consist of a few cargoes of grain ; but there are upwards of 400 tons of lead and copper ore extracted from the neighbouring mines of Glendalough, &c., shipped here weekly for smelting. The Railway Commissioners in 1835 estimated the value of these exports at £85,000, and its imports at £15,000.

The Wicklow mountains now present themselves to view, and Bray, a fashionable watering-place, Killiney Bay, and Dalkey Island, are passed in succession, and Dublin Bay once more attained. At the S.E. entrance is the Kish light-ship, moored in 8 fathoms water, at the north end of the Kish bank, $53^{\circ} 19' N.$ $5^{\circ} 56' W.$; it exhibits three fixed lights from separate masts, that on the mainmast being at an elevation of 25 feet, and which form a triangular figure, seen at nine miles distance.

TRANSATLANTIC PACKET COMMISSION.

HAVING now circumnavigated the Island, and described every important matter connected with the maritime Ports, their Harbours, and the Coast, it remains to conclude this work by making a few observations on the propriety that exists for establishing harbours of refuge on several parts of the east coast, and more particularly between Kingstown and Belfast Lough ; and briefly to refer to the proceedings and report of the Commissioners appointed by the Treasury, to inquire into the best harbour in Ireland for establishing a packet station. This commission, which was called "The Transatlantic Packet Station Commission," was composed of five members, Right Hon. Earl Granville (Chairman), Hon. W. Cowper, Sir James A. Gordon, Sir John F. Burgoyne, and Captain Stephen Ellerby, all Englishmen or Scotchmen, of course. They continued their sittings at the Board of Trade, from September, 1850, to May, 1851 ; and after the examination of numerous witnesses, and wading through a mass of written communications, they came to a conclusion, not very difficult to foresee even before the inquiry was entered upon, that the establishment of such a station on the S.S.W. or W. coast of Ireland, although it might be beneficial to that country, would be prejudicial to England and Scotland ; and they, therefore, could not recommend any change being made, in removing the packet station from Liverpool, where it had been originally established, except occasionally delivering and embarking the mails at Holyhead. A portion of this report, however, in respect to "the west coast being subject to fogs and hazy weather, and particularly dangerous in the winter season," is not correct, nor justified by the evidence or documents produced on the inquiry, unless from such prejudiced naval authorities as Sir Edward Belcher, who, although he described at great length the unfitness of these harbours for packet stations, at

the very onset admitted that he had never been in one of them in his life ; and that his knowledge was derived from his inspection of charts in connexion with them. Some idea may be formed of the reliance to be placed on this man's testimony, when he asserted that Liverpool possessed all the commanding features of a first-rate port, and was the most eligible place for the arrival and dispatch of packets to America ; although it is notorious that the entrance is most dangerous, from the shifting sands with which it abounds, and the sunken and other rocks on the coast between it and Holyhead ; and that during four hours of the ebb tide it is only accessible to vessels not much larger than cockboats. To compare Liverpool with the magnificent harbours of the Shannon, Galway bay, Cork, and Berehaven, is preposterous. The remainder of his evidence is full of error, and can only be exceeded by his prejudice ; but so much in accordance was it with the views of the Commissioners, that he was appointed by the Admiralty to the command of the last expedition sent out in pursuit of Sir John Franklin, and for which he showed himself every way incompetent, returning home without orders when danger became apparent, and leaving one of the vessels in his charge in a most precarious situation ; for this he was tried by court-martial, and, although acquitted, his conduct has been neither satisfactory to the Admiralty or the public. It was to have been expected that this inquiry would have dissipated the illusion that so long existed, in respect to fog or haze being more prevalent on the west than on other parts of the coast. The evidence of Captain William Randall, a gentleman of great ability, and personally acquainted with it for many years, clearly demonstrates that from the bold and prominent formation of the west coast, and the deep water to its base, which the Commissioners report as rendering it dangerous ; while he contends that it is incapable of retaining fog, and less likely to produce it than a coast that lies low, and where the soundings are well defined. But what is to be thought of a report that describes Berehaven, in Bantry bay, the most splendid natural harbour in Europe, "as too narrow to be made by large vessels at night or in hazy weather?" How the Commissioners could come to this conclusion, with the evidence before them of Captain John Washington, a gentleman of great nautical skill, and long conversant with the coast,

is very unaccountable. Does he say the entrance to Berehaven is too narrow? No such thing. He describes it as a capacious natural harbour, with ample depth of water, and two entrances; and that it is the harbour *par excellence* of Ireland. And he further says there is no difficulty in making it, a light-ship at the western entrance being all that is required to define it more clearly by night. This opinion is confirmed by Captain George Evans, who was employed, on the Post-office commission inquiry in 1835, to inspect the harbours on the western coast; and he says, "Berehaven is a very fine harbour; there is no harbour in Ireland equal to it;" and he might have added, nor anywhere else. Liverpool and Holyhead absolutely sink into insignificance, when compared with it; and, notwithstanding that there has been £600,000 of public money expended, or rather wasted, on the latter, it never can be a harbour of great utility. At low water spring tides, there are only 252 acres covered with 2 fathoms, 188 with 4 fathoms, and only 84 with 5 fathoms water; while Berehaven, which has been fully described under that head, has 1,900 acres with over 5 fathoms at dead low water. The great objection to its being used as a packet-station arises more from its being so remote from railway communication than from any defect in its naval superiority; but the distance is every day diminishing; to bring it in connexion with the Great Southern and Western Railway, and the Mallow and Killarney junction, just completed, has done much towards accomplishing this object. The harbours selected by the Commissioners as most eligible for packet-stations, were Cork, Long Island Sound, Crookhaven, Dunmanus Bay, Berehaven, Valentia, Tarbert, and Galway. Foynes, which was not originally mentioned in the investigation, during its progress, showed itself so well qualified for a packet-station, that it was the harbour of the Shannon most approved of for the purpose. It must be now admitted that it is futile to expect support from the British government, towards establishing a packet-station on the S.W. coast of Ireland, but without its assistance, if there were a couple of fast-going steamers from one of the western ports, to be dispatched immediately with Messrs. Collins and Brown's packets, no doubt the government of the United States would pay handsomely for the mails to be carried by them. The report endeavours, as much as

possible, to limit the time and space between Holyhead and New York, stating the time to be gained, contrasting it with the south western ports, to be only from 6h. 19m. to 9h. 20m. in their favour ; notwithstanding there cannot be a doubt that the saving of time would be considerably more, and that a steamer equal in power to Cunard's, dispatched from Galway or the Shannon, would reach New York 36 to 42 hours earlier than from Holyhead and Liverpool, and all the dangers of the Irish channel be avoided. The electric telegraph between Holyhead and Dublin, and on the Great Southern and Western, and Midland and Great Western Railways, is in operation ; the value of the intelligence conveyed by such a steamer would be beyond all calculation, and, combined with the other advantages that the western coast possesses for communication with America, would soon throw the Liverpool line, notwithstanding its government support, into the shade. It may not be uninteresting to give here, the particulars of the contracts entered into by the governments of Great Britain and the United States, for the conveyance of the mails between these countries. In 1839, the transmission of the mails by government vessels was discontinued, and a contract was entered into by the British government with Messrs. Cunard and Co. for that purpose, for which they now receive £145,000 annually. The largest of their steamers is about 2,000 tons burden, and of 800 nominal horse power ; it is 285 feet in length, and draws, fully laden, $19\frac{1}{4}$ feet water. They leave Liverpool every Saturday from April to November, and every second Saturday from December to March, alternately, via Halifax to Boston, and direct to New York, returning every Wednesday from May to December, and every second Wednesday from January to April. Messrs. Collins and Brown's packets leave Liverpool and New York respectively once a fortnight for eight months, and once a month for four months in the year ; for the conveyance of the mails, the United States government pays them 385,000 dollars, or £80,208, annually. There are two other lines between New York and Havre, and Bremen and New York, which leave for and return to their respective destinations once a month, touching at Southampton. For the conveyance of the mails by the former, the United States government pays 150,000 dollars, or £31,250, and for the latter, 200,000 dollars,

or £41,666. Not to have a single steamer on the whole line of the southern and western coast of Ireland, in communication with America, for which it is so admirably circumstanced, is a national disgrace : nine-tenths of the Irish emigrants for the United States, are obliged to proceed to Liverpool at considerable extra expense, to embark there ; and it also well accounts for the small amount of manufactured goods shipped direct from Ireland to foreign countries, where they must be in considerable demand, particularly Irish linen, cloth, and yarn. And here it may be asked, what has become of the Joint Stock Company, with a capital of £500,000, formed at the Mansion House, Dublin, in 1851, to ensure a direct steam communication between Ireland and America ? If Cork, Limerick, and Galway would cordially unite and establish a couple of first-rate steamers, under the management of a Joint Stock Company, to be dispatched monthly, from one of these ports in rotation, to New York, a commencement would be made to that direct communication which would soon extend itself, and the country derive incalculable benefit therefrom. The metropolis and Belfast would aid the efforts of these ports, not only in taking shares in the undertaking, but in giving them a preference of their shipments out and home. These steamers should be built for the accommodation of both cabin and steerage passengers, notwithstanding the interested evidence given by Mr. J. B. Moore, a member of the Liverpool Corporation, before the Commissioners, to the contrary. It is the opinion of a man whose judgment cannot be questioned in matters of this kind, Mr. Cornelius Vanderbilt, the commercial king of America, that ocean steamers will pay without the aid of either one government or the other ; and, in confirmation of it, he has established a line of steamers between New York and Havre, to compete with the post office packets on that station. Why was not Mr. Vanderbilt applied to by the commercial community of the western ports, to assist them in this desirable object, when they failed in persuading a government to do so, that never did, and never will, render Ireland a service, should it interfere in the slightest degree with English interests. But no prejudice or hostility can prevent the western coast of Ireland from being one day in close commercial intercourse with the United States. Its extreme westerly position—its proximity to the

American continent—its magnificent harbours, now adapting themselves for extensive commerce, by the construction of splendid docks and other accommodation for the largest ships—its water power, fuel, and the other natural advantages it possesses for manufacturing purposes—all must combine to direct the attention of a great commercial nation, like the United States, to this coast ; and the extensive emigration of the Irish people, who now form no inconsiderable portion of the population of the States, will contribute still further to strengthen the link to bind these countries still closer together for their mutual interest and advantage.

Harbours of Refuge.—Although the Transatlantic Packet Commissioners, in their report, pronounce the navigation of the western coast of Ireland as dangerous, particularly in the winter season, it is not so much so, by any means, as other parts of the coast. In 1853, Mr. W. Kirk, M. P. for Newry, moved for a return of all the vessels that had been lost or wrecked on the coast of Ireland, for the five years ending 5th January in that year, by which it appears the number was 447. Taking the whole of the west coast, even from Cape Clear in the south to Malin head in the north, comprising about one-half of the Irish Coast, there were only 105 of that number lost on it. From Malin head to Belfast Lough, about 90 miles of coast, there were only 40 vessels lost ; but from the Lough, south of which the dangers of the Irish coast really commence, to Kingstown, about the same distance, the number was 88 ; while from Kingstown to Cape Clear, in the track of the American post-office steamers, when proceeding south from Liverpool or Holyhead, there were 214 vessels lost ; the Wexford coast, which these packets are obliged to pass, being particularly dangerous ; but not the slightest allusion is made to it in the Commissioners' report. Captain Washington, in his wreck chart, has shown for the five years ending in 1856, that 244 steamers and sailing vessels were totally lost by collision, and 1940 by stranding, and a much greater number partially wrecked on the coasts of the United Kingdom ; the lives lost were 4150, and the property he valued at seven millions and a half sterling.

In the first and second editions of this work, the necessity

that existed for Harbours of Refuge on the east and north east coast of Ireland was forcibly demonstrated, and those places most eligible for their construction pointed out. It was shown that Waterford Harbour, with all its naval advantages, was rendered inefficient for the purpose, by the shoal between the entrance and Duncannon Fort, on which, at ebb tide, there was only 14 feet of water, and consequently prevented vessels of large tonnage running for it in gales of wind, but that if this bar or shoal was removed, which would only cost £20,000, it would be a noble harbour indeed. That the entrance to Wexford haven should be deepened, and a refuge harbour made between Kingstown and Belfast, which was required as much as on any part of the coast. That Ardglass, although well adapted for a safety harbour on a small scale, was ineligible from its proximity to Belfast Lough, which is a safe and commodious harbour for the largest vessels to run for in gales of wind, and to render Ardglass equally efficient it would take £300,000. Skerries, on the same principle, was described as too near Kingstown, and the expense of constructing a harbour there would be considerable. Carlingford and Clogherhead only remained, and both were equi-distant from Kingstown and Belfast Lough. It was considered that at Clogherhead a pier and safety harbour could be constructed at a comparatively moderate sum; but Carlingford, if its bar was removed, would make a magnificent harbour of refuge; the expense, however, of effecting this object was estimated at a much larger sum than will now be required. The Admiralty survey, which had been suspended for some time during the Crimean war, has been since resumed, and on the 25th June, 1857, a Committee of the House of Commons was appointed to enquire into the policy of making further grants of public money for the improvement and extension of harbours of refuge. It was composed of 20 members, and unlike the Transatlantic Packet Commission, four of these were Irishmen; consequently, better results may be anticipated from this enquiry, than attended that mock investigation on which there was not one. The witnesses who were examined by the Committee fully agreed with the opinions expressed in this work as to the places most suitable on the east and north-east coast of Ireland for the construction of harbours of refuge. Captain Washington, hydrographer to the

Admiralty, stated that there were no two spots in the United Kingdom where such excellent harbours of refuge could be made at so small an outlay as at Waterford and Carlingford, and that £20,000 expended on each, in deepening the respective entrances to 18 or 20 feet, would render them accessible to the largest vessels navigating the Irish sea. In this he was confirmed by Captain Frazer, R. N., and Captain R. Hoskins, R. N., and every other witness at all acquainted with the coast. An opinion prevailed previous to this enquiry, that for £40,000 a harbour of refuge could be constructed at Clogherhead, at the entrance of Dundalk bay, which would afford accommodation to 200 or 300 sail of the largest vessels; but this illusion has been removed by Captain Frazer's evidence, which states that it would take £600,000 to form a harbour of 250 to 300 acres there. Whereas at Carlingford, where Captain Hoskins has been recently employed in surveying that harbour by the Admiralty, and who discovered a new channel in which there is 18 feet at low water, but being circuitous it is only adapted to steamers; he and Mr. James Ramsay, Engineer to the Newry Navigation Company, have shown that for less than £30,000, the direct entrance to Carlingford Lough can be dredged, so as to give 20 feet at low water on the bar without its silting or filling up again. Immediately inside, there are upwards of 1,000 acres, affording good anchorage in from 3 to 5 fathoms water, independent of an immense space even to Warrenpoint, where the largest vessels can ride in safety; and Mr. Ramsay has made an estimate that for £23,046 these advantages can be obtained, which puts an end to the question of competition as to the most suitable place to establish a harbour of refuge between Kingstown and Belfast Lough. A circumstance, however, occurred while Mr. Ramsay was under examination, which shows with what unwillingness English members entertain any application from Ireland for a share of the public money, to be expended even on the most useful undertakings. Mr. Ramsay having expressed an opinion that the improvement at Carlingford would benefit the trade of an extensive district, Mr. Baring asked him if he was prepared to make any suggestion to the Committee as to raising the money in the district to be so benefited for making this improvement; and again demanded, did he think it possible to raise the money in the neigh-

bourhood to effect it? Mr. Ramsay very properly replied,—he thought not; that he was also averse to exacting a toll for the purpose, “and, although it would be of great advantage to the local trade, it would be still more so to the community at large.” And he might have added, what Mr. Baring should have known, that if the district was prepared to pay the expense, there was no occasion to apply to the government, or bring the matter under the consideration of the Committee. Mr. Baring, who seemed to be so apprehensive about the trifling outlay of £20,000 on Carlingford Harbour, which all admitted would be of such utility to the shipping navigating the Irish sea, and to none more so than to the portion to and from that favourite government-port, Liverpool, hung down his head and remained silent, when Captain Washington stated that there was a sum of £937,000 already expended on Holyhead harbour, and that the rubble and mason stone work, not yet commenced, would cost £174,931, and £239,849, respectively; and that the inner pier of the eastern breakwater, yet to be constructed, would cost an enormous sum; so that it was not difficult to perceive that it will take two millions of money to complete this harbour. Mr. Baring did not enquire if the cost of this improvement could be raised in the Holyhead district or in Liverpool, for the advantage of which port it was constructed, but appeared to be, in this instance, quite indifferent as to this waste of the public money, for waste it unquestionably is, notwithstanding the opinion of Captain Washington to the contrary. The original estimate of the late Admiralty engineer, Mr. Rendel, was £600,000 to complete the harbour, which, however, when expended, was found insufficient, and, in consenting to extend it, the Captain says the Treasury was right, and that “if the harbour cost twice the money it could not be better laid out, and that every sailor in Liverpool agreed with him in that opinion.” Yet on this very enquiry, two of the most experienced Captains of mercantile marine, Wherland and Bourne, and representing the shipping interest of Liverpool, said, in reference to Holyhead harbour, that it was on a lee shore and difficult to get in, and still more difficult to get out; and in corroboration, Captain Frazer said, “that a vessel leaving Liverpool, caught in a south-westerly gale, could not get

into Holyhead." They also gave an indifferent opinion of Milford Haven and Kingstown, as harbours of refuge ; while they were unanimous in their praise of Waterford and Carlingford for the purpose. Under the head of the "Transatlantic Packet Commission," the relative capabilities of Berehaven, in Bantry Bay, and Holyhead, are described ; and notwithstanding that the former is still in a state of nature, and that these immense additional sums have been expended on the latter, there is no great reason to change the opinion given in 1855, "that it can never be a harbour of great utility." Contrary to the report of the Commissioners, which so egregiously misrepresented the south and west coasts of Ireland ; on the present enquiry, every nautical man acquainted with them declared they afforded such an abundance of good natural harbours of refuge, that it was not requisite to expend a single shilling on them for the purpose. On the north coast, however, there is a spot which, until very recently, has been little noticed, yet so admirably circumstanced for a harbour of refuge, that it is surprising more attention has not been directed to it on this enquiry. The channel which runs between the Skerry Islands, and the high land where Portrush is built, in which there are 8 to 10 fathoms water, requires only an outlay of £150,000 to unite them with the main land, which would then form a splendid harbour, in which 500 sail of the largest ships ever built might safely ride. If this harbour was made, sailing vessels as well as steamers from Liverpool and the Clyde, and all the Irish ports, as far as Dublin, trading with America and the West Indies, would prefer going north to south about, which would be then the safest route. There would be no difficulty in getting in or out of this harbour, or of being wind-bound there ; it is on the ocean, and the moment a vessel leaves it she is on her course. Providence has placed on the Irish coast two of the finest natural harbours in Europe, Berehaven in the south, and Skerries at the other extremity of the Island, due north ; was Ireland an independent kingdom, or were there on the English coast two places possessed of such capabilities, they would not only have been converted into harbours of refuge long since, but into naval depôts of the first importance. The Committee have briefly reported that the matter

they were appointed to investigate has had their consideration, and that they agreed to report the minutes of evidence taken before them to the House of Commons. Whether it is intended to follow this up next session by a more extended report, or to leave the matter in the hands of the Government or the House ; certain it is that the trifling sum which is required for Ireland, and which is calculated to do so much general good, should be granted at once. Ireland has other claims, independent of the utility of the proposed improvements, a very considerable amount of the 8 millions granted by parliament in the session of 1847, for the relief of the Irish poor, then perishing by disease and famine, was retained at the Treasury, and it would be only common justice to expend a small portion of it now in forming harbours of refuge at Waterford and Carlingford, and in improving Wexford Harbour, where the land reclaimed would more than pay the expense, and all could be effected for £67,000.

The statistics on those important subjects which had been early referred to in this work, were in most instances brought up to 1856. It will now be necessary to glance at their subsequent operations to the present period, and probably the most disheartening on the list are those under the head of

Population and Emigration.—It has been already shown that there was an actual decrease in the population of Ireland in 1851, as compared with 1841, of 1,623,154 persons ; and that between the years 1841 and 1847, it was more than probable the population had so increased, that it was 8,796,545 ; that 873,048 of that number emigrated to America between the years 1847 and 1851, and 314,610 persons to Great Britain ; still leaving 1,056,917 persons unaccounted for, who must have perished by disease or famine. The corrected census returns for 1851 make the population of Ireland 6,552,385, being 415 persons more than were originally returned to parliament, and similar discrepancies are observable in the early issues of the agricultural statistics from the same department, which are calculated to confuse, when amended. By returns recently presented by the Irish Registrar General to the Lord Lieutenant, it is estimated that the population on the 1st January, 1857, had still

further decreased by emigration to 6,047,492, after allowing for the excess of births over deaths calculated on an average of these events in England and Wales for sixteen years. But as the Commissioners of Emigration, in their annual reports to the Colonial Secretary, make the number of Irish who emigrated foreign 31,667 less than the Registrar General for the five years ending 31st December, 1856—the probability is, that the decrease in the population is not quite so much as he estimates it to be. The emigration for the six years ending in 1852, has been already given, as well as the large sums remitted by the Irish emigrants to their friends in Ireland up to that period, and since then they have continued to remit sums, almost incredible if it was not so well authenticated, and which the Commissioners admit is not only “singular and interesting, but most creditable to the Irish peasantry.” In 1853 they remitted, through bankers and public companies, £1,439,000; in 1854, £1,730,000; in 1855, £873,000; and in 1856, £951,000; making a total in nine years of £9,344,000 so remitted. The Irish exodus, which set in with such force in 1847, was at its acme in 1851: of the 335,966 emigrants for that year, 254,537 were Irish. Although the emigration in 1852 was probably the largest that ever left the shores of the United Kingdom, and that the Irish portion was enormous, considering the diminished source from which it came, it was only, however, 224,997 out of 368,764, the total emigration for that year. Australia was then the rage, and the emigrants thence were principally English; the decrease in the Irish on the former year, was 29,540. In 1853, the total emigration was 329,937, and the Irish still further declined to 192,609, being a decrease on 1852 of 32,388. In 1854, there emigrated 323,429 persons, of whom 150,209 were Irish. Compared with 1853, the English emigrants increased 28,051; the Scotch 3,267; and the foreigners and not distinguished 4,574; while the Irish decreased 42,400, leaving a total decrease of 6,508 on the year. In 1854, there were only 26,174 emigrants embarked at the Irish ports, not the one-twelfth of the emigration from the United Kingdom, and only one-sixth of the Irish portion of it. Belfast only contributed 1,098 thereto, although in 1847 there proceeded from that port direct 10,997 to America.

The following will show the number of emigrants—English, Irish, and Scotch, as well as foreigners and those whose country was not ascertained, who proceeded from the ports of the United Kingdom, and their destinations, for the years 1855 and 1856 :—

YEAR 1855.

	English.	Irish.	Scotch.	Foreigners	Not distinguished.	Total.
United States....	25,278	57,164	3,797	8,285	8,890	103,414
British America..	4,533	6,106	5,471	666	1,190	17,966
Australia and New Zealand }	27,127	15,500	4,657	1,595	3,430	52,309
Other Places	194	84	112	8	2,720	3,118
	<hr/> 57,132	<hr/> 78,854	<hr/> 14,037	<hr/> 10,554	<hr/> 16,230	<hr/> 176,807

YEAR 1856.

United States....	31,194	58,777	4,960	6,951	9,955	111,837
British America..	3,662	4,354	3,283	1,390	3,689	16,378
Australia and New Zealand }	29,349	8,359	3,621	854	2,401	44,584
Other Places	322	234	169	279	2,751	3,755
	<hr/> 64,527	<hr/> 71,724	<hr/> 12,033	<hr/> 9,474	<hr/> 18,796	<hr/> 176,554

The English emigrants of 1855 compared with 1854, decreased 33,834; the Irish 71,355; the Scotch 11,835; and the foreigners and not distinguished 29,598: total decrease on the year, 146,622. The emigrants embarked direct at the Irish ports were even less in proportion to the diminished total than in 1854, and only amounted to 6,712, of which 119 were English. Comparing 1856 with the previous year, the English emigrants increased 7,395 and those not distinguished 2,566; while the Irish decreased 7,130, the Scotch 2,004, and the foreigners 1,030, leaving a small decrease on the year of 253. The emigration from the Irish ports continuing to diminish year after year, and in 1856 was only 4,824. This shows great apathy on the part of the merchants and ship-owners of these ports, who make no effort to wrest from Liverpool the prior right of dispatching the Irish portion direct. For the three years commencing 1st January, 1854, and ending 31st December, 1856, the emigrants

consisted of 272,822 male, and 216,263 female adults—of both sexes under fourteen years of age 145,088, and not distinguished by age or sex 42,617; the male adults therefore exceeded the females by 56,559—yet on the portion embarked at the Irish ports for these three years the males were 12,406, and the females 15,681; the latter exceeding the former by 3,175. This is accounted for by the number of young females transmitted to the British colonies by the Poor Law Guardians, a system of clearance from the workhouse which in many of the Unions has been persevered in since 1847. The Poor Law Commissioners' returns state, that from 1st April, 1854, to the 31st March, 1855, there were no less than 2,847 female and only 159 male adults sent out or assisted to emigrate by the guardians of various Irish Unions, and that £12,864 of the poor rates direct, and with the consent of the Treasury £10,000 of the rate in aid, the collection of which was so properly unpopular in Leinster and Ulster, was appropriated to the purpose. Of these, the Cork Union contributed 479 females and 1 male; Limerick 401 females and 4 males; Dublin 222 females and 1 male; and Galway 179 females and 4 males, who were all dispatched to the British settlements in the Canadas and Australia; and this wholesale and mischievous emigration of young females occurred at a time when there were only from sixty to eighty thousand inmates in all the Irish workhouses, and for the week ending 23rd December, 1854, in the depth of winter, when most full, the number was only 81,870; while Scotland, in May, 1855, on a population of less than three millions, relieved 143,423 persons and their dependants, 69,350 more; and England and Wales 897,686; yet neither the board of supervision for the relief of the poor in the former country, nor the Poor Law Guardians or Commissioners in the latter, attempted to lessen the rate by expatriating their poor, although the population of both is rapidly increasing, while that of Ireland is as rapidly on the decline. It is gratifying to find that the Guardians of the Unions in Leinster and Ulster, with the exception of Dublin and a few others, have been opposed to this disgraceful scheme of depopulating the country. By the Registrar-General's report already alluded to, it appears that the tide of emigration from Ireland, which made a pause in 1854, and continued to ebb during 1855 and 1856, recommenced early in

1857 to flow again with renovated force, and for the first four months of that year 33,052 persons had either embarked from Ireland direct or proceeded to English ports to emigrate to foreign lands, and exceeded the corresponding period of 1856 by 6,386 persons, and during the succeeding months the increase was still more considerable; yet with this evidence before them, and a conviction of the fact, that even if this unassisted wholesale emigration was to continue much longer the country must inevitably fall to decay, the Poor Law Guardians of the Cork and Limerick Unions in the month of July, 1857, when the people were deserting the country in thousands, entertained most willingly the proposal of a Mr. Chaunt, who represented himself as an agent of the Government Emigration Commissioners, to furnish the German Legion, now located in British Caffraria, and which is composed of the scum and outcasts of the continental petty states, with 120 female adults from their respective workhouses, who were to become the wives or thralls of this disreputable corps. In the Cork Workhouse the agent actually selected forty of the finest and most vigorous of the young females there for the purpose, which was assented to by the guardians, when there were only 1,873 inmates receiving relief in this extensive union, a smaller number than it maintained since 1845. If Ireland is ever to be otherwise than a plantation to feed the English people profitably employed on manufactures to which the Irish should also aspire, every possible means should be taken to increase its population, not to diminish it, and the system of clearance which the Poor Law Guardians in the south and west seem so partial to, should be particularly discountenanced, as it is only through the medium of young females the country can be regenerated. Some of the evil effects of that mistaken and ruinous policy pursued by the Irish landlords in evicting the holders of small farms on their estates, are now but too apparent, and worse are yet to follow. If they had expended as much time and money in establishing manufactures and otherwise employing the people at home, as they have done in supporting them in the workhouse and forcing them into exile, there would be no deficiency of men as there unquestionably is now to fill the skeleton ranks of the British army—but they preferred the emi-

grant-ship, with all its pollution, to carry off what they termed the surplus population, and those who first essayed and tasted at the Spring of Independence in the United States, induced others to follow in such numbers, that the country is likely to become an extensive feeding plantation, and the landlords have little else left than the brute creation in a fattened state to associate with. It was well for England when the 43rd of Elizabeth, cap. 2, was passed, which threw the whole support of the poor on the land, that emigration could not be resorted to as at present. The English landlords were then obliged in self-defence to establish manufactures and cut out remunerative employment for the people who would have otherwise eaten up their estates, and it is to this Act that England is indebted for laying the foundation of its immense manufacturing importance. The selection so long made of the United States by the Irish emigrants in preference to the Canadas or Australia, appears to have spread to the English also, there being an increase of 5,916 to the States in 1856 over the previous year, and a decrease of 871 to British America. For forty-two years commencing 1st January, 1815, and ending 31st December, 1856, the emigration from Great Britain and Ireland to the United States was 2,703,782, to British America 1,149,341, to Australia and New Zealand 552,367, and to other places 64,829; total 4,470,319, of which 3,021,515 emigrated within the last twelve years. During the greater part of this period the Government and the Poor Law Guardians encouraged, by grants and contributions, emigration to the British colonies, but notwithstanding the United States obtained considerably more than one-half of the whole number. The Emigration Commissioners, in their report for 1856, intimate that a considerable portion of those who embarked for the United States, on their landing there crossed the frontier and settled in Canada, whereas the very reverse is the fact, particularly as regards the Irish, who, for the reasons already stated in the early part of this work, gave a decided preference to the United States. Although the Irish emigration, since 1851 to the close of 1856, has been gradually declining, it is very doubtful that any increase has since then occurred in the population. It is certain that the country, in the

interim, has not been visited by pestilence or famine ; but a great portion of the adult population which emigrated was young, healthy, and vigorous, and better calculated to fill up the chasm in the population than children, or the old and feeble, who constituted a considerable portion of those who clung to father-land. If it was possible for the next three years to stem the tide of emigration that has again set in, or keep it within the limits of 1856, it is probable, notwithstanding the expressed opinions to the contrary, that the population of 1861 would be little short of 1851. Between the years of 1821 and 1831, on a similar extent of population, the increase was 965,574 ; and from 1831 to 1841, it was 407,723, and emigration was then also going on to a certain extent ; and in the latter period, which accounts for the comparative small increase, the cholera in 1832 had made awful ravages in Ireland.

Incumbered Estates Court.—The practical, expeditious, and beneficial working of this Court continues without intermission. Since October, 1853, to which time its proceedings have been referred to in this work, there appears to have been a considerable increase in the amount of property disposed of by the Commissioners. The sales, since the filing of the first petition, 21st October, 1849, to a similar period in 1853, amounted to £10,430,463, and to the 24th May, 1855, they extended to £15,096,085, showing the amount for the last nineteen months to be £4,665,622, and, compared with the average of nineteen months of the previous period, say £4,128,725, shows an increase of £536,897. The following statement has been furnished especially for this work by that very intelligent, efficient, and obliging gentleman, Mr. Chas. M. Ormsby, to whom the country is particularly indebted for his admirable arrangement of the statistics of the Court, and for having originally suggested the propriety of establishing the statistical department in connexion with it, over which he has presided for upwards of seven years, with so much credit to himself and advantage to the public. Since 21st October, 1849, to the 31st August, 1857, comprising a space of seven years and ten months, the number of petitions presented was 4,164, and the absolute orders for sale 3,341 ; the number of matters in which owners were bankrupt or insolvent,

was 357. In many other cases the owners of estates became bankrupt or insolvent, pending the proceedings in this Court, which were subsequently carried on in the names of their assignees. Of the first 100 petitions filed in this Court, six only were presented by owners of estates; and of the last 100, no less than fifty-three were presented by them. The total number filed by owners was 1,245. The conveyances executed by the Commissioners were 7,283, and the estates, or parts of estates, were disposed of in 10,327 lots; viz., by public auction in Court, 7,270; provincial auctions, confirmed by the Commissioners, 1,436; and by private contract, also confirmed by them, 1,621. The number of documents and muniments of title deposited in boxes in the Record office, was 250,000. The number of Irish purchasers was 7,180; the number of English, Scotch, and foreign purchasers was 309; and the total quantity of land sold up to May, 1855, was estimated at 2,300,000 acres, viz., 1,750,000 to the former, and 550,000 acres to the latter. As the account now stands, the money paid for estates by the Irish purchaser is £17,939,661 8s. 4d.; and by the English, Scotch, and foreign purchasers, £2,836,295. Up to May, 1855, the latter obtained 24 per cent. of the acres sold, and paid only 15 per cent. of the whole of the purchase-money, from which it is to be inferred that this portion of the land must be of inferior character, or bought on much lower terms than that obtained by the Irish purchaser; but since then, although the amount of land purchased by them compared with the Irish is less in proportion by £348,190, the number of purchasers has increased by 35 beyond it, which is probably owing to some of the recent purchases being small, and made by English and Scotch settlers. The gross sales effected by public auction in court produced £13,941,207 10s.; provincial auctions, £2,924,381; and by private contract, £3,910,367 18s. 4d.: total, £20,775,956 8s. 4d. The distribution of this large sum is thus accounted for:—Paid by order of the Commissioners to parties entitled to it,—in cash, £11,688,288 14s. 3d.; in stock, £4,223,349 12s. 1d. Credits to purchasers, on account of incumbrances vested in them, £2,822,589 3s. 5d. Cash in the Bank and in the Funds, £1,446,571 11s. 10d.; the balance of £595,157 6s. 9d. is accounted for by credits granted to incumbrancers not being made absolute, and the non-lodgement

in court of the proceeds of some recent sales. One of its many beneficial results is the death-blow it has given to long-pending and ruinously expensive suits in chancery. Up to the 28th April, 1853, it extinguished 9 of these suits of more than fifty years standing, 10 of more than forty years, 39 over thirty, 77 over twenty, 256 exceeding ten, and 583 of upwards of three years; total 974; and since then 293 additional suits have been settled by its agency. This Court was formed to remedy the evils depicted in the report of the Irish Commission of Enquiry, over which the Earl of Devon presided, and, notwithstanding its utility, its existence is only to be of a temporary character. Why is not this Court, which harmonizes so essentially with the spirit and temper of the present age, made permanent? Should any fatality occur to deprive the country of this the most valuable of its institutions, Ireland would not have sustained a greater loss since the Act of Union deprived it of its parliament. The Commissioners appointed to enquire into the state of the business of this Court, and to ascertain "if it would be advisable that it should be continued with any and what modifications," have published their report, which states "that the course of practice and procedure adopted by the Incumbered Estates Court, has worked well, and given general satisfaction; and so far as relates to the sale of estates, and the proceedings incident thereto, it cannot suggest any improvement in it." Notwithstanding, it recommends its abolition, and that all its powers should be vested and its business transacted in Chancery, a Court to be formed, to consist of the Lord Chancellor, the Master of the Rolls, and two Vice-Chancellors, yet to be appointed. There is a wholesome apprehension, however, in the public mind as to the business of this Court being vested in Chancery, from which it has rescued so many unfortunate suitors. In the event of its being suppressed, the country should insist on the 10th recommendation of the Commissioners being most scrupulously adhered to, "That the practice of the Court of Chancery, as to the sale of estates, should be regulated by general rules, and be assimilated, as far as possible, to the present practice and procedure of the Incumbered Estates Court."

Banking.—The history of banking, from its earliest dawn in

Ireland, to 1853, has been already discussed in this work. The substitution of Joint Stock Banks in lieu of private banks has certainly improved the system, and has rendered the circulating medium more safe and substantial; still it is very far from being perfect. The principle upon which the Joint Stock Banks act, is more with a view of individual emolument than the public good, and it has been ascertained that in very many instances the direction and management could not have fallen into more unfit or illiberal hands. The existence, particularly, of the Banks of Issue, depends on the confidence the public have in their stability, and their profits are derived in a great measure from the circulation of their paper. Do these establishments, which should be the chief support and the mainstay of commercial and manufacturing enterprise, encourage in return the growth or extension of either? With the exception of the Northern Banking Company, which has liberally sustained flax spinning in Belfast, the others have taken but little interest in the prosperity of it or any other manufacture. This is but too clearly demonstrated by the slow progress that both commerce and manufactures have made in Ireland for the last twenty years in comparison to England and Scotland. There is the Hibernian Bank, and the Bank of Ireland, and the National and Provincial Banks of Ireland; but Ireland still wants a bank that would do the country more good than all these put together—a Bank to be formed under the Limited Liabilities Act, with five millions paid-up capital, to be raised by one million shares of £5 each, in which every tradesman and provident working man in the kingdom could have a direct interest, and it might then be appropriately called “The People’s Bank.” This Bank to be one of discount and deposit, as all those newly formed are prohibited, by Peel’s Bank Restriction Act of 1844, from issuing bank notes. Let no one suppose that this money is not to be had in Ireland. Within the last few years upwards of 20 millions have been paid for purchases in the Incumbered Estates Court, 18 millions of which were from Irish purchasers. There is now nearly the whole sum invested by the Irish industrial classes in the Savings Banks, on which the depositors are getting considerably less than 3 per cent.; this is a serious

loss to them, when money is bringing 9 and 10 per cent. in the market on securities equally good. The proprietors of the Royal Bank of Ireland had a meeting on the 11th of November, 1857, when the yearly profits were declared to be £36,863 15s. 9d., and a dividend of 14 per cent. made on a paid-up capital of only £209,175. The prosperity of this bank is solely owing to the admirable management of Mr. Charles Copland, a gentleman who unites great urbanity of disposition to an extensive knowledge in the science of banking. Let no man fear to embark his money in such a national undertaking as the People's Bank. Let not even the fate of the Tipperary Joint Stock Bank deter him; had the management of that bank been placed in honest and efficient hands, it would have been a source of great profit to the proprietors: but it was made the stalking-horse of John Sadlier, one of the most notorious delinquents on record, for the purpose of carrying out his own selfish and ambitious schemes, in which there was not a particle of philanthropic or national feeling. This bad man's acts were properly reprobated by an indignant public, and his memory consigned to the odium and abhorrence with which such flagrant crimes are always regarded by posterity. Other Joint Stock Banks, established in England by similar swindlers, who contrived to get the unlimited direction placed in their own hands, and appropriated the money invested by the proprietors to their own extravagant and vicious purposes, have met the same fate; still these do not constitute a reason why a bank should not succeed established on so solid a foundation that nothing short of a national bankruptcy could shake it, and under the direction of men whose intelligence, standing, and wealth would place them above all suspicion—such men are to be found in Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Belfast, and other cities and towns in Ireland, who must be well aware of the incompetency of the present banking system. This Bank would be a source of incalculable benefit to Ireland, and remunerative in the extreme to the proprietors; with five millions capital, properly managed, it would require no paper issue even if permissible, and it would therefore escape the loss consequent on the dead weight in specie which Banks of Issue are obliged to hold in proportion to their notes in circulation, the formation of which is also attended with considerable

expense. Although it is possible to form a Joint Stock Bank under the present law in which the proprietors would only be liable for the amount of their shares, Mr Headlam's Bill now before parliament, the introduction of which has been assented to by government, will remove all doubts on that point; and therefore to those possessed of property the People's Bank would be a most desirable source for investment, as well as to the trading and working classes, and all those who have £5 and upwards out at low interest. Ireland has scarcely felt the money panic of 1857, which swept over the commercial nations of the Old and New World with such fearful violence; but this is not surprising, considering the little encouragement given to enterprise there, without which neither commerce or manufactures can prosper. The former, for the last few years, is by no means progressing in the same ratio with England and Scotland: for instance, the foreign trade for 1856, of Dublin, Cork, and Belfast, was, inwards and outwards, only 310,700 tons; while the foreign trade in and out of Glasgow was 402,231 tons; Hull, 1,207,186 tons; Newcastle, 1,975,539 tons; and Liverpool, 5,097,306 tons, or sixteen times more than the three ports conjointly; and this is owing to a liberal system of banking coeval with its commercial importance. The exports, foreign, of British and Irish manufactures from the twelve principal ports of Great Britain and Ireland for the same year are valued at £105,732,272, of which Dublin, Cork, and Belfast contributed £224,908! Although the indirect trade of Ireland with foreign countries through British ports amounts to many millions, this official statement looks bad on paper, and it must be admitted that there is a great want of enterprise in the country which is in a great measure owing to an illiberal and stunted system of banking. The currency, also, although sound, is too limited even for the present trade and accommodation of six millions and a half of people, paying, as in 1856, taxes to the crown, £7,028,857, and local imposts probably to the same extent. As there is no gold in Ireland except what is locked up in the coffers of the banks, the circulating medium is confined to their paper issues, which do not amount to a pound a head on the population, and it is therefore surprising how so much revenue was raised with so small a circulation. Twenty millions of additional capital could be profitably em-

ployed in Ireland, and the proposed bank would bring into active circulation a sum greater than the paid-up capital of all the banks, including the Bank of Ireland, which amounts to only £4,955,372. Without an extension of a sound, liberal, and judicious system of banking, it is quite impossible that Ireland can compete with either England or Scotland in commerce or manufactures; it is in a great measure owing to it that they have made such gigantic strides in advance; and although an occasional cloud may dim the commercial horizon from over-trading, or other untoward circumstances, the sun of prosperity soon dispels it, and leaves the atmosphere more pure for renewed confidence and increased exertion.

Mines and Minerals.—One of the most important discoveries that has taken place in Ireland for many years, has been recently made on the estate of the Marquis of Downshire—the salt-mine of Duncree, in the neighbourhood of Carrickfergus, and within about two miles of the Ballymena railway. The shaft has been sunk on the new line to Ballyclare, where there is a constant stream of water running past the engines, which, in consequence, only require to be cleared out every six months. The rock salt is of very superior quality. In some places it is 280 feet in depth; one mass is 84 feet, and another 30 feet thick. The intervening stratum is intermixed with iron-stone of fair average quality. The sample of the salt which has been analyzed, contains 94 per cent. of pure chloride of sodium or common salt; it contains 50 per cent. of soda, the raw material being so pure that it did not require refining. It is said that a considerable strata of coal lies beneath the salt, which would render the discovery still more valuable; but the existence of the salt itself is of vast importance, as it was supposed that Ireland possessed no mineral of the kind. Lord Downshire has stated that the salt in this mine would supply the country for 200 years, not probably in an agricultural point of view, but commercially, and would give employment to thousands. A block of the rock-salt of considerable magnitude, and as hard as flint, was exhibited at the Dublin Exhibition. Lord Downshire deserves great praise for the spirited manner in which he has persevered in exploring and following up this interesting discovery.

In the County Leitrim, a mine of another description has been opened at Crevilia, 3 miles from Dunkerrin, 6 from Lough Allen, and 9 from Manor Hamilton, by a Scotch Company, for the purpose of making pig iron. There are here two strata of iron-stone, from the size of an orange to 18 inches in diameter, and equal in quality to any stone found in the United Kingdom, two tons of which will make one ton of pig iron. Coal is in great abundance on the spot, in beds from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 feet in thickness ; it is in colour a brilliant black, and possesses great properties for domestic purposes. It is fully equal to the best coal of South Wales for evaporating steam, and is singularly free of sulphur. The coal and iron-stone are so easily obtainable, that they can be brought to the furnace for about 3s. a ton. An engineer, conversant in operations of this kind, says, iron can be made here as cheap, if not cheaper than in either Scotland or England ; and the quality of the pig iron is second to none produced in either country ; and that it only requires railway communication to make Leitrim the Staffordshire of Ireland. The field of these operations is in the neighbourhood of the Arigna mines, a point to which this work alluded in its description of the Shannon, as possessing immense mineral treasure. The iron ore here cannot be excelled in the universe, and is particularly calculated for the manufacture of steam engines.

Fisheries.—This work, in its description of the Irish coast, has shown that the seas which surround it, almost in every direction, literally swarm with fish of the most valuable description. Notwithstanding which, there appears to be an apathy or indifference in taking advantage of that great and cheap abundance, which Providence has brought to the very doors of the Irish people, who still prefer paying large sums of money, year after year, in the purchase of British and Foreign fish, than in taking the necessary measures for catching and curing, not only a sufficient supply for their own consumption, but to enable them also as formerly to export a greater quantity than any other nation in Europe. Since the famine of 1846, almost all those who have written on this subject attribute the decay, which is but too apparent in our deep sea fisheries, to the extensive emigration from our maritime towns and districts, and

more recently to the demand for seamen to man our war navy. It has been already shown in this work, that between the years 1845 and 1852, there was a decrease of no less than 6,606 vessels and boats, and 34,251 men and boys, employed in the Irish sea fisheries. The returns since then are still more disheartening, and demonstrate all but the extinction of the Irish sea fisheries, which should be, if not the principal, at least one of the great industrial resources of Ireland.

The following are the returns of the Commissioners for administering the Fishery Laws for Ireland, of the number of vessels, &c., registered for fishing purposes on the 1st January in each year from 1853 to 1857, viz. :—

	YEARS.				
	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.
Vessels and Boats	12,381	11,079	11,251	11,110	11,850
Men and Boys	49,208	48,227	49,754	46,685	52,085

The Commissioners complain of the difficulty they have in obtaining correct information as to the number of vessels and boats employed in this pursuit ; but surely none should exist as to those that are registered, and yet the tables comprising those returns are furnished in the most careless and slovenly manner, and abound with discrepancies. In 1854, they state that Carlingford was included in the Newcastle district, and Strangford in that of Donaghadee ; and for the years 1855 and 1856, there were no returns inserted from them ; but in 1857, Strangford again appears on the list, as having registered 755 vessels, 1823 men, and 223 boys ; and for Donaghadee, a precisely similar number is returned. Whether this was or was not purely a mistake, or intended to swell the number of vessels and hands employed, it has been corrected in the numbers here given, as well as the return for Wexford, in which the vessels, men, and boys are evidently misplaced in the table columns. The causes which have operated against the success of the Irish sea fisheries, must be sought otherwise than in the drain that emigration or supplying our navy may have had on those employed in the pursuit. Neither will it be accounted for by the stupid supposition that McCulloch, the Scotch economist, has hazarded in support of

his favourite maxim, that small farms, and the sub-division of land, have produced this, as well as all the other evils of Ireland : these no longer exist ; and when they did, they were more calculated to promote than diminish sea fishing, for a family living near the coast, on a small farm, would have more time to devote to fishing purposes, than one whose whole attention would, of necessity, be devoted to the cultivation of a larger one. The cause is, therefore, more likely to be found in the numerous Acts of Parliament which have been passed since the reign of Charles II., to encourage the fisheries of Great Britain, and cripple as much as possible those of Ireland ; these may be styled legion, and many have been the pretexts used for their enactment. Sometimes it was the protection of the Irish timber plantations, and at other times the preservation of the salmon fisheries. As far back as 1777, an Act was passed, which in itself was sufficient to annihilate the Irish sea fisheries ; it prohibited the tanning of nets and lines for fishing purposes with bark, and rendered compulsory the smearing of them with tar and oil, the colour and smell of which frightened away the fish, and contributed to the decay of the nets, while the English fisherman was allowed to tan his nets with oak-bark, which preserved them for ten or twelve seasons. The greatest enemy to the Irish fisheries could not have devised a *happier* scheme than this to extinguish them. In 1842, an Act was passed to increase the size of the meshes of the Irish fishing net to $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches from knot to knot, and that even these nets, which the subsequent acts of Vic. 5 & 6, c. 106, and 8 & 9 Vic. c. 108, admitted were too large and permitted the escape of great quantities of valuable fish, and reduced the meshes to $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches, were not allowed to be shot during the day-time under excessive penalties. The bounties granted by the legislature in 1764, and subsequently in 1819, as already shown, were withdrawn in 1830, and the Commissioners of Public Works now enforced with rigour the payment of loans made to poor fishermen, which drove many of them and their securities to America. While government was acting this part in Ireland, it gave £14,000 a year to encourage the fisheries of Great Britain ; £500 of which was granted annually to poor fishermen to repair their boats, nets, &c. ; and during the five years of recent famine they received £2,500 for such purposes ;

while the Irish fishermen, instead of receiving assistance and support from the Board in this period of dread calamity, were actually obliged to pay £260 in fines and a forfeiture of their gear for fishing for herrings in the day-time, or using trammel or trawl nets at the entrance of bays or rivers. The consequence of this partial legislation and official coercion has been to deprive the Irish ports of that remnant of their deep sea fishing which two centuries ago had been so successful, that it was only second in importance to the Dutch fisheries. It has now centered itself in Great Britain, and particularly in Scotland, where in the season of 1809 the total quantity of herrings cured was only 90,185½ barrels, but which in 1849 increased to 770,698½ barrels; and Ireland, which formerly even exported its herrings to Holland, has for the thirty years commencing in 1820 and ending in 1849, imported from Great Britain 3,560,144½ barrels, which at a moderate price amounts to considerably over five millions sterling; while the rest of Europe has only taken from that country 1,267,046½ barrels. Since 1849, the Scotch fisheries, certainly under very superior management, and encouraged and fostered by government grants, have continued to prosper, and in 1853 the quantity of herrings cured in Scotland was 778,039¾ barrels; in 1854 it was 636,562½ barrels; and in 1855 it extended to 776,703½ barrels. Ireland still remained a good customer, and took 96,315½ barrels of the latter year's brand; but the trade of Scotland with the Continent in this article is extending every year; and Stettin, Dantzic, and Hamburgh, alone took 108,482 barrels the same year. The herring fishery alone employed 91,139 of the Scotch population, and the number of fish curers was 1054. Mr. MacMahon, one of the county members for Wexford, has session after session, since 1853, introduced bills in the Commons to repeal these restrictive acts, which were rejected without ceremony. These bills were simple, and met the present exigency; they sought the repeal of the obnoxious statutes relating to the Irish fisheries passed since 1842, and to revive the 10th Charles I., c. 24, and 38 & 39 Geo. III., c. 109, which recognised the right of the inhabitants to free fishing on the coasts of Great Britain and Ireland. Why the government opposed these bills or why they were not better supported by Irish members is inexplicable, particularly when the com-

missioners of enquiry on the fisheries in 1836 so strongly recommended the revival of these acts as well as free trade in fishing generally. Mr. MacMahon, it is to be hoped, will continue to agitate this subject in parliament, until the principle of free trade in fishing is permanently established. This is a national question of great importance, and the Irish constituencies ought to insist on their representatives voting for it. Some of them have already retraced their steps. Mr. Bowyer, M. P. for Dundalk, who voted under erroneous impressions against Mr. MacMahon's bill in the first instance, has subsequently, on every occasion, given him his most strenuous support. If the plea is, that the repeal of these laws would affect the preservation of the salmon fisheries, it is not admissible, as they have also fallen off under the restrictive system ; and valuable as they are, they sink into perfect insignificance when compared with the immense wealth that the deep sea fisheries would produce the nation if persevered in with spirit, skill, and energy, and that these obnoxious restrictions were removed, under which they can never prosper. Connected with the salmon fisheries, some interesting experiments have been tried in respect to the artificial propagation of this fish, which, as already stated, first took place at Oughterard and Galway. The salmon fry brought from thence were exhibited in a glass case at the Dublin exhibition in 1853 : since then the Board of Works has established a sea pond at Kingstown, 200 feet long by 50 feet wide ; the depth at low water is 7 feet, with a rise to 13 or 14 feet with the tide, which flows through a grating placed at the entrance of the pond. Fry from the fresh waters of the Liffey and Bray rivers, at the proper age and migratory state, have been transferred to this pond. It may be inferred, however, from the commissioners' silence in their recent reports in respect to it, that it has not succeeded, and it is merely another proof that all artificial attempts are vain, in restraining the natural impulse implanted in the animal creation. In France it has been ascertained long since, that although salmon will exist in artificial ponds, they are never in condition, but pine away when prevented from migrating to the sea ; from whence their return to the same pond is hypothetically absurd. The only improvement observable in the Irish sea fisheries is the formation of two companies under

the Limited Liabilities Act, the Royal Irish Fishing, and the London and West of Ireland Fishing Companies. They have established themselves at Galway ; but the former has fishing stations at Dingle, Portmagee, Innisboffin, and the Isles of Arran, and had, in 1856, 13 vessels employed in the trade ; 8 of these register 306 tons, and for the first 4 months of 1856 realized for the Company £437 5s. 9d. on an outlay of £945. The London and West of Ireland Company has also some superior fishing vessels and boats, and is well supplied with every material for the catch and cure of fish. It is to be hoped that these companies will succeed in their laudable efforts to resuscitate the Irish fishing trade.

Poor Laws and Poor Rates.—The working of the Poor Laws since their introduction into Ireland has been already shown, and how instrumental they were in sustaining a great portion of the population during the years of famine that succeeded the failure of the potatoe crop in 1846. Bad as the consequences were which it produced, it is quite frightful to reflect on what they would have been if these laws had not been in operation. It has been also shown that in 1852 the country had so far recovered from the shock, that the number of persons then receiving relief was not much greater than in 1846.

The following gives the number of persons in the 163 unions who have received in and out-door relief, the expense thereof, and the number of able-bodied and other inmates in the workhouses of Ireland for the four years ending the 29th September, 1856 :—

Years ending 29 Sept.	EXPENDITURE.				In the work-house.	Out of the work-house.	RELIEVED.		Total inmates in the work-house.
	Maintenance and clothing.	'Out door relief.'	Officers' salaries and other expenses.	Total cost.			Able bodied in the workhouse.		
	£	£	£	£			Males.	Females.	
1853	446,030	4,920	334,768	785,718	396,436	13,232	3,703	9,313	80,799
1854	463,858	3,715	292,579	760,152	310,608	9,008	3,741	9,353	66,506
1855	432,842	4,702	247,715	685,259	269,794	35,432	2,806	7,754	56,546
1856	358,943	2,245	215,202	576,390	212,579	4,557	2,287	6,073	46,127

There has been, therefore, since 1852, a gradual diminution in the number of persons relieved in Ireland, as well as in the general expenditure connected with their support. Comparing 1855 with 1854, there was a decrease of 14,390 persons relieved, and in the

expenditure £74,893, of which £44,864 was in the salaries of officials and other expenses of the establishment. This is a favourable symptom in the condition of Ireland compared with Scotland, where there was an increase of 8,879 persons relieved, and £32,856 in the expenditure; and in England and Wales of 33,069 persons, and in the expenditure £607,188. The total cost of sustaining the Irish poor for 1855 was £685,259, which on the population of 1851 would be 2s. 1d. a year on each person of which it was composed, while the Scotch cost £611,785, or 4s. 2½d., and the English and Welsh £5,890,041, or 6s. 7½d. on each of their population. Ireland relieved 305,226 persons, at an average annual cost of £2 4s. 7d. a head, or 10½d. a week; Scotland 212,773, at 1s. 1½d.; and England and Wales 897,686, at 2s. 6½d. a head. Of these in Ireland, 35,432 received out-door relief, which, although eight times the number so relieved in 1856, is insignificant when compared with England and Wales, where 776,286 were so relieved, of whom 125,962 were able bodied, and of all classes only 121,400 were relieved in the workhouse. This contrast is strikingly unjust as regards Ireland. In the original Irish Poor Law Act there was no provision to afford out-door relief, which occasioned much of the mortality and dreadful sufferings of the poor in 1847. But as the 10 Vict., cap. 13, then passed, gives the power, and that the rates are so much reduced, out-door relief should be more generally extended to poor, industrious families, who, if forced by necessity into the workhouse, know on leaving their humble homes they are never to return to them more. Pauperism in 1855 was less in Ireland than in England and Wales, and much less than in Scotland. Taking the census of 1851 as a standard, there was in England and Wales 1 pauper in every 20 of the population; in Ireland, 1 in 21½; and in Scotland 1 in 14. For the year ending 29th September, 1856, there was a still further decrease in Ireland. The poor rate lodged was £112,690 less than in 1855; the total number relieved in the workhouse was 212,579, and out of it only 4,557; the decrease in both was therefore 88,090, and in the expenditure £108,869. On the small number of able-bodied males in the workhouse in 1855, there was a decrease of 571, and in the females 1,681, and both have diminished gradually from 86,838 in 1850, to 8,360 in 1856. The expense of supporting the

Irish poor is expected to be even less for 1857 than the preceding year; from returns made to the Commissioners by the several unions to the 25th March last, it is not likely to exceed £490,000. Notwithstanding these favourable results, and that the support of the Irish poor is now scarcely felt, the guardians, only intent on still further reducing the expense, have persevered in the ruinous and disgraceful policy of expatriating, or rather banishing from their native land, under a variety of pretexts, these young and vigorous females whom necessity compelled for a time to seek shelter in the workhouse; under the head of population and emigration the wholesale clearance of this class of inmates from the Dublin, Cork, Limerick, and Galway workhouses, has been already described; but it was not then supposed that the guardians of the Leinster unions had adopted this miserable and discreditable scheme to reduce the rates. Much to the credit of the Ulster guardians, there has not been a solitary instance in the province of thus disposing of their poor. The Commissioners' reports of 1856 and 1857 show, that between the 1st April, 1855, and 31st March, 1857, there were 1,632 persons dispatched by the guardians to foreign lands, of whom 726 were females over 15 years of age, and many of the 766 denominated children, which formed a part, were girls no doubt approximating to that age. Of the young females New Ross contributed 83; Mullingar, 66; Wexford, 61; Gorey, 45; Enniscorthy, 30; Kilkenny, 24; Callan, 32; Castlecomer, 15; Naas, 20; Drogheda, 24; and Ardee, 23. All unions in the province of Leinster, and those females from Ardee, were probably selected by Mr. Vere Foster, whose philanthropy cannot be for a moment questioned, although it is exerted in a wrong direction by patronizing and encouraging the emigration of young females in particular, when the population of the country is reduced to so low an ebb. The gross immorality practised on board emigrant ships, of which there has been a recent exposure connected with one on which Mr. Foster, with much care and circumspection, embarked a number of emigrants of that class; and when such has been the case on board a ship where so much precaution was used, what must have been the fate of those young females shipped from the workhouse without protection, and often without consideration as to their future welfare? The guardians, in many instances, seem to forget that they have

other duties to discharge independent of reducing to the lowest point the rate upon property, both as regards the protection of the poor, which their title designates, and the character, importance, and regeneration of the country, which are involved in many of the measures over which they have control. Economy is just and proper, and very desirable, when it can be exercised consistent with the due maintenance and protection of the poor; and surely the country is not now groaning under the weight of this tax, which in 1855 was only 1s. 2½d. in the pound, on £11,565,466, the value of the property then subject to it; and it is now, in 1857, no doubt considerably less—indeed, the Poor Law Commissioners anticipate in their last report that it will not exceed 10d. in the pound. It is said that, notwithstanding the expression of public indignation, the guardians of the Cork and Limerick unions still persevere in their scheme of supplying the German legion in the wilds of Caffraria with the young Irish girls in their charge. The ink which described the character of this notorious corps under the head of emigration in this work, was scarcely dry on the paper, when in corroboration thereof a crime involving great treachery was perpetrated by one of them, who, having committed a robbery, was in charge of Thain, a police detective, who too leniently allowed him the use of his hands, from which he foully received his death in an unguarded moment. This man is a prototype of the rest, and from declarations made by him, it may be taken for granted that irreligion and immorality are the characteristic features which distinguish him and his late comrades. If the guardians, with facts like these before their eyes, still persevere, it is the duty of the chaplains of these workhouses to interfere, and, on the ground of religion and morality, save these poor females from being victimized to gratify a miserable and mistaken economy. Limiting the number of unions, or amalgamating, as it is called in the report, those already in existence, is another favourite scheme for reducing the expense and increasing the difficulties of the poor in obtaining relief. The Commissioners are very properly opposed to it, and if anything could justify such a course, it would be the adoption of a more extensive system of out-door relief—such as exists in England and Wales.

While on this subject it would be most unjust to omit noticing the

humane and indefatigable exertions of Mr. John Francis Maguire, M.P. for Dungarvan, to obtain a repeal of those infamous laws which authorize the removal of the Irish immigrant to the place of his birth, although he may have spent a long life of labour and ingenuity in the service of England, when old age, sickness, or poverty compels him to be a recipient of the most trifling modicum of parochial relief. Mr. Maguire has written a pamphlet on this subject which does equal justice to his head and heart, and his exertions have been unwearied on the committee which sat for two sessions enquiring into the abuses that attend the removal of the poor. Still the Parliament declines to legislate in respect to them, and those unnatural laws are allowed to remain a disgrace to the statute book as well as to humanity.

Education.—The system of Education pursued in Ireland, and particularly under the Commissioners of National Education, has been given in this work up to 1852; since then they have published their 20th, 21st, and 22nd Reports, which detail their proceedings to 31st December, 1855, from which the following is extracted:—

Years ending 31 Dec.	Schools in operation.	Pupils on the rolls.	Average daily attendance of pupils.	Agricultural model schools.	Treasury issue on Parliamentary grant.	Sale of books, farm produce, and from other sources.	Total receipts.	Total expenditure.
					£	£	£	£
1853	5,023	556,478	274,781	129	159,577	22,792	182,369	179,981
1854	5,178	556,551	267,099	155	187,073	25,200	212,273	208,650
1855	5,124	538,246	253,825	165	175,040	24,035	199,075	203,534

The Report for 1856, although prepared, has not been yet printed or presented to Parliament, and comparing the year 1855 with 1854, there was a small decrease of 54 ordinary educational schools, and 18,305 pupils, of which 10,450 were in the workhouse schools, which is accounted for by the few number of inmates in these establishments of either age or sex. There were advances made to other schools in progress of building, which would leave the number on the rolls 5,192. From the close of 1852 to 30th September, 1855, there was an increase in Connaught of 83 schools and 1,429 pupils; in Leinster, 73 schools and 2,247 pupils; in Munster 103 schools, but a decrease of 6,610 pupils; and in Ulster a decrease of 10 schools and 1,471 pupils; total increase, 249 schools, and a decrease of 4,405

pupils ; but from 30th September to 31st December, 1855, there were 2,341 additional pupils admitted, which made the total decrease only 2,064. Independent of the Marlborough Model Schools, which had 1,526 pupils in September, 1855, there were 12 district model schools, with 2,949 pupils on 31st December, 1855—of these 3,234 were Catholics, 649 Protestants, 521 Presbyterians, 66 Protestant dissenters, and 5 Jews ; total, 4,475. There were also trained 201 male, and 87 female, National teachers, and 39 others ; total, 327. Of the 288 National teachers, 227 were Catholics, 41 Presbyterians, 18 Protestant, and 2 dissenters. Three of these model schools have been established since 1852, at Kilkenny, Limerick, and Waterford, and there is an agricultural department connected with the latter. A very extensive district model school has been built at Belfast, and a site purchased for one at Londonderry. There is also the West of Dublin model school, with 459 pupils on the rolls, and an average daily attendance of 364 pupils, and one sanctioned by the Great Southern and Western Railway Company at Inchicore, with an evening school for scientific instruction, and both are well attended. The number of workhouse schools in connexion with the National Board was 130, which afforded education to 30,741 of the inmates. In 1852 there were only 92 agricultural schools, which increased in 1855 to 165 ; of these there were 37 model, 46 ordinary, 3 garden, and 79 workhouse agricultural schools. There appears to have been some objection made to the amount expended on this department of national education ; but this is very inconsiderate, as it is a most invaluable portion of the system. Literary acquirements are no doubt inestimable, but to the great bulk of the people industrial education would be more beneficial. A combination of both, however, could be exerted under the present system of national education. There are only 12 industrial schools in Ireland connected with the Board, and the pupils are all females engaged in needle-work ; but the male children who attend the literary schools might be taught some scientific or mechanical trade, such as would suit their capacities ; the parents of many of whom are too indigent to pay fees with them as apprentices, and a poor man, conversant only with book-learning, is seldom enabled to make out life. The great objection to it is, that the time is too limited to instruct the children in

both, but this could be obviated by a portion of the evening, or two days in the week, being devoted to the practical instruction of mechanics. The intention of the Commissioners to establish schools in the leading maritime towns, where navigation will be taught, and a knowledge of model and mechanical drawing diffused among the pupils attending the schools in general, is a step in advance towards industrial education. In respect to the agricultural schools, they have been most effective, 3,500 of the rural population having received instruction through their medium, while only a fractional part of the whole expenditure has been appropriated to them, as will appear by the following :—

Total expenditure of 19 Agricultural Schools and Farms under the exclusive management of the Commissioners	£10,985	11	0
Deduct amount of farm produce, £4,081 Os. 7d., and of stock, £2,024 Os. 8d.	6,105	1	3
	<hr/>		
	4,880	9	9
Expenditure on model, ordinary, and workhouse agricultural schools under local management	£1,209	8	3
Expense of agricultural inspectors	805	2	6
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	2,014	10	9
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Total cost of agricultural education for the year 1855	£6,895	0	6
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The total receipts for the year were £199,074 15s., and a balance on hand from the previous year of £12,942 9s. 9d. : the total expenditure was £203,533 15s. 4d., leaving cash on hand £8,483 9s. 5d. These are flattering results ; and when it is considered that the juvenile population of from 5 to 15 years of age in 1851 amounted only to 1,703,507, it is gratifying to reflect that one third of these were receiving education by means of this truly national institution. In the summer of 1856, strange as it may appear, at a time when a commission was inquiring into the abuses that exist, and the misappropriation of the funds of the endowed schools of Ireland, which were monopolized exclusively by the Established Church, an attempt was made in the House of Commons by Mr. Walpole to divert a portion of the Parliamentary grant to other systems of education of a more sectarian character than that on which the present National schools are conducted, which took the House by surprise, and was

carried by a small majority. Subsequently, however, on the motion of Mr. Chichester Fortescue, M.P. for Louth, this vote was cancelled in a very full House, and after a prolonged and animated discussion. The Commissioners have spun out the time for inquiring into the state of the endowed schools to an unreasonable length, and their report has not yet been presented to Parliament. It is, however, ascertained that it recommends these schools to be thrown open for the education of pupils without religious distinction. But this is not sufficient; the schools and funds should be placed under the control of the Commissioners of National Education, which would be a saving of the public money, and precedents are not wanting where Parliament has interfered, and diverted trusts of a more sacred character into other channels, when abuses, either real or imaginary, were said to exist.

Railways.—The statistics and other particulars connected with railways since their introduction into Ireland to the 30th June, 1852, have been fully detailed in the early part of this work. The following will show the progress they have since made for the four years ending 30th June, 1856, viz:—

Years ending 30 June.	Miles open 30 June.	Total number of Passengers.	Amount received from Passengers.	Received for luggage, carriages, mails, &c., &c.	Received on merchandise, cattle, &c., &c.	Total Receipts.
			£	£	£	£
1853	787	6,474,266	463,615	(Included in merchandise.)	268,178	731,793
1854	843	7,228,074	550,363	97,527	230,226	878,116
1855	898	6,849,425	537,367	94,937	280,588	912,892
1856	988	7,584,744	618,183	115,096	336,137	1,069,416

On the 30th June, 1856, there were 988 miles of railway open in Ireland, which was an increase on 1855 of 90 miles, and in the number of passengers conveyed, 735,319; on the receipts derived from them, £80,816, and from mails, merchandise, &c., £75,708; total increase on the year, £156,524. The lines or branches opened in 1855, were the Dublin and Wicklow from Bray to Wicklow, a branch of the Great Western from Mullingar to Longford, and the Belfast and Coleraine extended to Portrush. There is now a continuous railway communication between Cork, Dublin, and

Londonderry, *via* Drogheda, Dundalk, Newry, Portadown, Belfast, and Coleraine, and branches to Kells, Ballibay, and Armagh. The south lines connect Dublin with Cork, Killarney, Limerick, Waterford, and Kilkenny, and by the Midland Great Western with Mullingar, Athlone, Longford, Ballinasloe, and Galway. A branch of this line is intended from Athenry to Tuam, and should be extended to Castlebar and Westport. The lines opened in 1856, were the Limerick and Foynes, the Waterford and Tramore. The Limerick and Ennis, the Limerick and Castleconnel, the Bagnalstown and Wexford, and the Portadown and Dungannon are nearly completed. The Tralee and Killarney, and Cork and Youghal are progressing, while the Dundalk and Enniskillen, the Ulster, and the Belfast and County Down are still working onwards to their termination. The Irish railways on which there are deficiencies in the working, are the Cork and Bandon, the Londonderry and Enniskillen, the Waterford and Kilkenny, and the Waterford and Limerick. The others are making fair dividends, and the Great Southern and Western, and the Dublin and Kingstown were particularly prosperous. The total number of passengers conveyed by the railways of the United Kingdom in 1855, was 118,595,135, and the amount received from them was £9,525,205; and for mails, merchandise, &c., £11,982,394; total, £21,507,599; the third class producing 54 per cent. of the passenger receipts, exceeding the amount from the first class, and nearly equal to that from the second, and the average for all classes did not exceed 1½d. a mile. The surplus income for the year, after paying interest on loans and preferential shares, was, for England and Wales, £4,070,288; for Scotland, £395,947; for Ireland, £333,683, averaging £3 12s. per cent. on the original shares. On the English railways during the year there were 214 persons killed, and 356 injured; on the Scotch, 14 killed and 70 injured; and on the Irish, 18 killed and 18 injured. Taking the number of miles worked as a criterion, it would appear that the casualties on the Irish railways are considerably less in proportion than on the English or Scotch, and that consequently more caution had been exerted on them; but it may have also occurred from a more limited traffic and a greater proportion of single lines in Ireland, particularly as compared with England. There were 188,177 persons employed

in the construction of railways in 1848, but they declined to 38,546 in 1856, and there were 138,590 persons employed on the lines then open ; of these, 108,228 were in England and Wales, 16,935 in Scotland, and 13,427 in Ireland. From the period that railways were first constructed in England to the 30th June, 1856, there were Acts passed authorising the formation of 9,497 miles of railway in England and Wales, 1,594 in Scotland, and 1,806 in Ireland. In England and Wales there were open 6,356 miles, in course of construction 662 miles, and 2,479 abandoned, or not likely to be persevered with. In Scotland there were 1,164 miles open, 101 in course of construction, and 329 not likely to be so ; and in Ireland there were 987 miles open, 199 in course of construction, and 620 miles on which operations had not commenced. By parliamentary returns from the railway department of the Board of Trade under date of 22nd August, 1857, the total amount authorised to be raised by Acts to 31st December, 1856, for the construction of 13,112 miles of railway in Great Britain and Ireland was £377,767,907, of which £282,890,751 was to be raised by shares, and £94,877,156 by loan, of which £307,594,086 was so raised, leaving the companies power to raise £70,173,821 more. Their total debt was £77,359,419, the interest on which was £3 244,240 ; the preferential shares amounted to £56,789,558, on which £2,424,523 dividend or interest was paid, leaving, after deducting working expenses, a net income of £5,967,551 on the original shares, or, on an average, about £3 7s. 6d. per cent. dividend on the year. The total number of miles open for traffic was 8,711 ; of these 2,444 were single and 6,267 double lines ; there were 1,080 miles in course of construction, and 3,321 miles not commenced, and several of the schemes connected with them abandoned. The 987 miles of Irish railway open 30th June were extended on the 31st December, 1856, to 1,055 miles, being an increase on the half-year of 68 miles ; there were 159 miles in course of construction, and 592 miles either abandoned or on which operations had not commenced. When the returns for June, 1857, are presented to Parliament, they will show a considerable addition to the number of miles open in Ireland.

Income and Expenditure.—A change much required and re-

commended when this work was first published (vide p. 153), that the public accounts should be made up to the last day of each year instead of carrying them five days into the ensuing year, has since taken place, and is a step in the march of improvement. The income and expenditure of Ireland have been already shown in the early part of this work for 13 years previous to 1853. The following will give the net revenue of Ireland for the four years commencing 5th January, 1853, and ending 31st December, 1856 :—

Years.	Customs.	Excise.	Stamps.	Post Office.	Property and Income Tax.	Repayment of advances for Public Works and Miscellaneous.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1853	1,924,511	1,708,621	474,430	...	27,976	480,332	4,621,870
1854	1,852,108	2,208,580	453,813	10,000	549,011	361,295	5,434,807
1855	1,919,109	2,308,125	441,300	26,000	1,049,808	311,930	6,056,272
1856	2,253,375	2,801,000	435,272	10,000	1,216,421	312,789	7,028,857

Independent of the above, the crown lands of Ireland for the four years produced £201,008 13s. 8d., which was brought to the general account of the Commissioners of Woods and Forests in England. There is a considerable increase, say £972,585, on the income or revenue of Ireland for the year 1856 over 1855, and still greater when compared with 1853, it being £2,406,987. Although the income and property tax, which attained its highest pitch in 1856, helped to swell the revenue for that year, still there was a considerable increase in the customs and excise ; on the former of £334,266, and on the latter of £492,875, and compared with 1853 of £1,092,379. An increase on the excise in England is generally regarded as a proof of prosperity ; whether it can be considered so in respect to Ireland is questionable, as a great portion of the amount is derived from the high duty on spirits, of which it may be also inferred there has been an increased consumption. The official returns do not give the expenditure correctly, but merely show how the revenue lodged in the Irish exchequer has been disposed of. It appears to have been particularly appropriated to the support of the army ; during these four years there were £2,850,000 remitted for that purpose to England, and £4,960,000 paid the army in Ireland, where so large a force was not necessary ; but as the regiments that

composed it are now almost entirely drafted off to India, where their services are likely to be required for an indefinite period, and as that vast country is said to be rich, and consequently better able to support a large standing army than Ireland, it is to be hoped that the money so saved by their absence will be appropriated to more national and beneficial purposes. It is also to be observed that while the money advanced out of the consolidated fund for public works and other improvements amounts only to £684,285, for the four years, the repayments were £1,429,945, which shows how well loans of this description have been liquidated in Ireland.

The accounts of the gross customs duties collected at the several Irish ports for the year 1854, which ended 5th January, 1855, and for the two succeeding years, ending respectively 31st December, are as follows :—

PORTS.	Year 1854 ending 5th Jan., 1855.	Year 1855 ending 31st Dec.	Year 1856 ending 31st Dec.	Increase on 1855 compared with 1854.	Decrease on 1855 compared with 1854.	Increase on 1856 compared with 1855.	Decrease on 1856 compared with 1855.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Dublin	886,287	915,595	1,001,230	29,308	...	85,635	...
Ballina	5,191	5,819	7,054	628	...	1,235	...
Belfast	368,015	363,177	381,525	...	4,838	18,348	...
Coleraine	7,259	8,134	8,050	875	84
Cork ...	241,242	233,085	286,725	...	8,157	53,640	...
Drogheda	14,196	12,910	12,942	...	1,286	32	...
Dundalk	24,405	30,568	34,162	6,163	...	3,594	...
Galway	23,860	23,397	26,048	...	463	2,651	...
Limerick	175,491	166,086	179,813	...	9,405	13,727	...
Londonderry ..	114,526	120,561	123,876	6,035	...	3,315	...
Newry and Strangford }	33,499	32,412	32,836	...	1,068	553	...
New Ross	28,018	18,592	20,070	...	9,426	1,478	...
Skibbereen	1,088	1,263	4,026	175	...	2,763	...
Sligo	18,819	20,407	22,440	1,588	...	2,033	...
Tralee	10,160	9,916	11,263	...	244	1,347	...
Waterford	93,814	92,317	102,666	...	1,497	10,349	...
Westport and Newport }	6,334	6,192	5,813	...	142	...	379
Wexford	14,481	17,612	16,956	3,131	656
	2,066,685	2,078,062	2,277,643	47,028	36,526	200,700	1,119
Deduct decr.	36,526	...	1,119	...
Net increase	10,502	...	199,581	...

Although there was an increase on the net amount of customs for 1856 of £334,266 over 1855, on the gross amount, however, it was only £199,581 ; the charge of collection or from whatever other cause the difference may arise is not explained by the returns presented to parliament, signed by Mr. James Wilson, M.P., joint secretary to the treasury ; and comparing the gross and net returns of the customs duties for 1854, the difference was £214,577 ; in 1855 it was £158,954, and in 1856, when the amount collected was still more considerable, it was only £24,268. This is quite inexplicable, and shows that notwithstanding the immense sums expended on officials, the returns to parliament from many of the public departments are furnished in the most unintelligible and careless manner. The whole of the Irish ports, with the exception of Wexford, Westport, and Coleraine, show an excess of customs revenue in 1856 over 1855, and the decrease in these three ports only amounts to £1,119. Dublin and Cork, in particular, show a very considerable increase, Limerick and even Skibbereen are in the ascendant, and Waterford and Dundalk appear to be recovering the ground they had lost for the last few years in the amount of customs duties collected at these ports.

Commerce and Manufactures.—It has been shown early in this work under this head, that in the year 1852, the number of spindles then employed in spinning flax in Ireland was about 500,000. In 1853 new mills were established, with 42,500 additional spindles. In 1854 the mills increased to 88, working 580,684 spindles. In 1855 there were 85 mills, and 594,573 spindles ; of these 29 were in Belfast and its environs, 46 in other parts of Ulster, nine in Leinster, and one in Munster. In 1856 and 1857 the number remained undiminished, which shows how well the trade sustained the injurious effects of the war with Russia. In 1853 there were only 53 power looms at work in Ireland ; they increased to 218 in 1854 ; but in 1857 they extended to 2,200, twenty-five firms taking advantage of the despatch and economy they afforded. These, however, are calculated to lessen the employment of the hand-loom weavers, and they are consequently so unpopular with them, that a serious and alarming demonstration was recently made at Lurgan

against their operation. The employers, however, contend that there are not weavers sufficient to be had to execute the required work even at a higher rate than it can be produced by the power-loom, and objectionable as it unquestionably is, in limiting the proceeds of labour, yet the Irish manufacturer in self-defence must have recourse to it, to enable him to compete with the English or foreign manufacturer with any degree of success. The cotton trade was prosperous in 1853 and 1854, when there were 111,264 spindles employed in Belfast and its neighbourhood in spinning cotton yarn; of these 34,360 were exerted on the finer qualities, 39,000 on middling, and 37,904 on coarse yarns; and Messrs. Malcolmson in their extensive cotton factory at Portlaw, Waterford, already described in this work, are doing a large and prosperous business. Notwithstanding the immense consumption for flax, and that the country does not grow the one-half of what is required for its own manufactures, there was a considerable export of the raw material for some years previous to 1856, but it then declined. France, which in 1855 took 1,142 tons, and the United States 20 tons, did not take a pound in 1856. The following will show the state of the trade for the four years ending 31st December, 1856:—

Years ending 31 Dec.	IMPORTED.				EXPORTED.					
	Flax. Tons.	Tow. Tons.	Linen Yarn. Tons.	Estimated Value. £	Flax. Tons.	Tow. Tons.	Linen Yarn. Tons.	Linen Cloth. Pkgs.	Estimated Value. £	
1853	8,725	441	2,984	1,116,352	4,974	2,686	3,352	70,111	4,653,779	
1854	6,990	687	2,707½	973,620..	8,036	2,253	3,314½	63,311	4,058,015	
1855	7,506	511	2,507½	969,580..	7,818	2,437	3,176½	69,268	4,335,425	
1856	9,891	326	2,985	1,211,230..	3,954	2,253	5,693½	73,673	4,568,465	
				4,270,782					17,615,684	
Balance of trade in } favour of Ireland }				13,344,902						
				17,615,684						

In the foregoing, the foreign flax imported for the last three years has been valued at £70, and the foreign yarn at £170 a ton; the Irish flax exported at £60, and the Irish yarn at £100 a ton, and the linen cloth at only £50 a package; still the result is most satisfactory, and shows that the linen trade is in a prosperous state, and flax spinning, in particular, progressing; the quantity of linen yarn

exported in 1856 being nearly double that of any of the three previous years ; and the export of linen cloth 4,405 packages more than 1855. As it is an anomaly to see a country exporting flax at a much lower rate than it is importing it, that very intelligent gentleman, Mr. J. MacAdam, jun., secretary to the Association for Promoting the Cultivation of Flax in Ireland, thus explains it :— “ The home-grown fibre, although the best in the world for the large range of the medium qualities of linen, is neither so coarse as the Russian, nor so fine, except in certain districts, as the Belgian. Hence to make heavy fabrics we must buy the former ; and to make fine lawns and cambrics we must procure the latter ; and because Irish flax is the best material for medium fabrics, the English and Scotch spinners, and to some extent the French and Belgian, purchase it in our markets.” The last remnant of the import duties on foreign linens into the United Kingdom expired in 1854, and the trade is now perfectly free, and many of the continental states have evinced a disposition to follow so liberal an example. Although flax spinning appears to be now so prosperous, it had to contend with great difficulties during the progress of the late war with Russia. The principal supply of the raw material was from thence, and it could only be obtained through Prussian ports in smaller quantities and at higher prices ; while the Irish farmer, in many instances, from cereal produce being more remunerative, gave up the cultivation of flax altogether, and a succession of indifferent crops rendered matters still more embarrassing. By the Agricultural Statistical Report of the 20th May, 1857, it appears that the number of acres under flax in 1854 was 151,403 acres, being a decrease on the previous year of 23,176 acres. In 1855 there was a still more serious diminution, there being only 97,075 acres cultivated, and leaving a decrease on 1854 of 54,328 acres. In 1856 the number was 106,311, showing a small increase of 9,236 acres on the preceding year, but a decrease on 1853 of 68,268 acres. The yield of 1854 and 1855 was inferior to 1852 and 1853, and that of 1856 was particularly unproductive.

There have been some new manufactures introduced into Ireland ; which, although they are progressing slowly, are likely to be attended with ultimate success. One of these, the manufacture of

sugar from beet, is invaluable. From the present high prices of grain, the cultivation of the root may not now be viewed by the agriculturists with a favourable eye ; but these high prices will not always continue : whereas, there appears to be a steady remunerative price for the beet-root, and not at all so liable to fluctuation as cereal produce. This work, which has been extended far beyond the limits originally intended, can only briefly refer to this manufacture. To Napoleon the Great it is indebted for its origin. France, deprived of its sugar-producing colonies, and the Berlin and Milan decrees having excluded Great Britain from supplying the Continent with it, the powers of chymistry were called into action to find a substitute for the sugar-cane, and the saccharine ingredient was successfully extracted from beet-root. In 1853, there were 135 factories in France, 370 in Austria and Poland, 350 in other parts of Germany, 200 in Russia, and 175 in Belgium ; and although in France the beet-manufactured sugar is subject to a duty of seven francs the 100 killos. (2 cwt.) over colonial imported sugar, still the home manufacture has latterly considerably increased. The consumption of sugar in Ireland is about 50,000 tons annually, for which upwards of one million and a half of money is paid. The whole quantity might be manufactured at home, and the money kept in the country to be expended in other useful pursuits. The quantity of beet required to make one ton of sugar is 16 tons, and the price paid at the Mountmelick factory was 15s. a ton. The average produce of an acre of land adapted for the purpose is about 25 tons ; it would therefore require 800,000 tons of beet, and 32,000 acres of land to produce this quantity of sugar, and 100 factories to manufacture it, each of which would employ 200 persons annually. The soil of Ireland in general is better adapted for the cultivation of beet-root than any in Europe, and produces 76 per cent. of sugar ; when that of Belgium, the next best qualified, only gives 70 per cent. The cost of cultivating an acre of it, including a fair rent and taxes, may be estimated at about £8, and with other incidental expenses, particularly carriage to a factory, will probably cost about £11 ; leaving the agriculturist £8 5s. an acre profit. The beet sugar factory at Mountmelick was established in 1851 ; but did not commence operations until 1852, and then only to the extent of a few

tons. Mr. Hersh, formerly manager of an extensive sugar factory at Valenciennes, and employed by the Mountmelick company in 1853, considered the construction so defective, that the greater part of the buildings had to be taken down, and a complete change made in the arrangement of the machinery, and it is now equal if not superior to the majority of the continental factories. The war with Russia, however, which enhanced the value of cereal produce, induced the Irish farmer to limit still further the cultivation of beet-root, and its price for feeding purposes being more considerable than the Mountmelick Company could afford to give, the manufacture of sugar for the present has been discontinued there. Professor Sullivan, who has devoted so much of his valuable time to the subject, recommends those who would embark in the manufacture to contract with a respectable machinist in France or Belgium to construct a complete factory, with all its modern improvements. This manufacture ought to take root in the country, adapted as it so admirably is for the culture of beet-root, as well as for flax; and both crops, if carried out to the full extent, would give immense employment to the population. The turf or peat bogs of Ireland, so long neglected, are now undergoing experiments which, if successful, will render them as valuable as the mines of California or Australia. It is said that 100 tons of dried peat will produce one ton of sulphate of ammonia, 14 cwt. of acetate of lime, 52 gallons of wood oil, 300 lbs. of paraffine, 200 gallons of naphtha, and 100 gallons of heavy oil, all of which would produce £60 in the market. Messrs. Gwynne and Co., Essex Wharf, London, in 1851 obtained a patent for developing other capabilities which the peat possesses by means of machinery invented by them. The process is extremely simple: the peat, as dug from the bog, is placed between a series of revolving rollers and deprived of a considerable portion of its moisture; it is then passed through hollow cylinders revolving in a heated chamber, where it is deprived of its remaining moisture, and then falls into the compressing machine, from whence it issues, considerably lessened in bulk, as solidified peat coal. Its specific gravity is 70 lbs. to the cubic foot, whereas mineral coal is only about 50 lbs., and its brick shape is more suitable for stowage. It contains no sulphur or other injurious ingredients, and is free

from smoke, and not liable to spontaneous combustion. It can be successfully applied to the manufacture of charcoal iron; to the refining, reducing, and smelting of metals, and will create a more intense heat, and produce a superior article to ordinary charcoal. Dr. Letheby, who experimentalized on one pound weight of this prepared peat, gives the result as 2,520 grains of charcoal, 1,320 grains of ammoniacal liquor, 360 of thick tar, and 2,800 of combustible gas, which is capable of a high illuminating power, and being perfectly free from sulphur gives it a decided advantage over coal gas. The cost of Messrs. Gwynne's machinery, to be worked without steam, and which will prepare four tons of solidified peat in an hour, is £2,200, and should the work be 12 hours in each day, the quantity made would be 17,520 tons, which at 10s. a ton would amount to £8,260 per annum; but driven by steam or water power could be vastly increased. Expensive explorations have been made from time to time in Ireland to discover coal with indifferent success; but here is fuel superior to it in every respect open to view on the surface of the earth; and for want of enterprise, capital, or perseverance, the turf bogs, the source of so much wealth, and embracing so capacious a field for labour, remain up to the present time quite neglected. In 1809, when the decrees of Napoleon prohibited Great Britain from being supplied with grain from the Continent, commissioners were appointed by parliament to inquire into the nature and extent of the bogs of Ireland, with a view towards their reclamation for agricultural purposes. The commissioners made four general reports, including 25 local reports, and the opinions of 10 engineers, which gave 2,866,280 acres as the quantity of bog-land either wholly or partially surveyed by them. The depth of 120,000 acres thereof was 23 feet, and of 178,000 acres $13\frac{1}{4}$ feet. Sir Robert Kane, in his report to the House of Commons in 1851, gave the depth of 236,590 acres of bog surveyed by him at $19\frac{1}{4}$ feet. Mr. R. Griffiths computes the annual growth of bogs at two inches, and it has been ascertained that a great portion of these bogs are at present in their primitive neglected state; and consequently the turf is of a superior quality. Suppose two millions of acres of this bog-land were appropriated to the solidification of turf or peat fuel, and that the average depth was $12\frac{1}{4}$ feet, Messrs. Gwynne show that every acre

thereof would produce 3,486 tons of air-dried turf, or 6,972,000,000 tons on the whole quantity, containing about 25 per cent. of moisture, which would be evaporated by their process ; but even allowing one-third of the whole to diminish in that way, there would remain 4,648,000,000 tons of solidified peat. The iron of Sweden and Russia, which is manufactured with wood charcoal, is very superior in the finish and grain to the iron of Great Britain, with the exception of that portion made from the same material ; and the iron made with coal is defective in producing steel, cord, wire, and for other purposes requiring great durability and strength. This country cannot long afford a sufficient supply of charcoal, and in the solidified peat is found a substitute equal, if not superior, to it. Messrs. Gwynne feel assured that one ton and a half of it would make one ton of bar iron ; but even allowing two tons for smelting the ore, and one ton for refining, it would give 1,549,333,333 tons of bar iron, and if the operation was to be dispersed over a term of 500 years, would leave an annual produce of 3,098,666 tons, which is more than the present make of Great Britain, say, 2,700,000 tons of pig-iron ; so that if this country did not produce a single coal, here is a sufficiency of superior fuel to answer the purpose during that period. The General Peat Working Company of Ireland has been operating under Messrs. Gwynne's patent on a property of Mr. J. F. Blands, near Valentia ; but for want of capital, or perseverance, or from other causes which so unfortunately counteract Irish undertakings, the working has been discontinued there, although the experiment has proved highly satisfactory. It has been already shown, in describing the river Shannon, the immense facilities the county Leitrim affords for the manufacture of iron, in an extensive district abounding both with turf and coal, and in proximity with them even a mountain of iron stone, the excellence of which cannot be surpassed in the United Kingdom ; this is the spot to test the power of the solidified peat, and with it to manufacture iron superior to any in Europe. It is surprising that the Mining Company of Ireland should still continue to ship its ore to Cardiff at such an immense expense in preference to smelting it where it is raised. This company made a dividend very recently of $17\frac{1}{4}$ per cent., which would have been 20 per cent. had the smelting

been done at home. The invention of solidifying the peat opens a wide field in Ireland for the investment and profitable employment of capital, of which there is abundance lying dead in the country ; and if other proofs were wanting, the sum of £1,423,572 paid in interest on government securities in 1856, shows that there must be about 43 millions so funded by persons residing in Ireland, much of which could be employed with more profit to the owners, and more benefit to the country. A company should be formed with the requisite paid-up capital, and a large tract of bog purchased over which no landlord should have control. If a proper system was then adopted in the working, the solidified peat would not only soon become the fuel for general purposes in Ireland, but might even compete with Newcastle coal in the London market. This furnishes an additional reason for establishing the People's Bank, which would apply itself to the legitimate purpose of developing the latent and vast natural resources of Ireland. A few other manufactures are progressing in Ireland ; there has been a considerable increase on that of paper since 1852 ; and Messrs. E. McDermott and Co., Arran Quay, Dublin, are now successfully competing with the British manufacturer in printing and other inks, which are held in high estimation.

If the tonnage of the vessels entering inwards and clearing out of the ports of Ireland is a fair criterion to judge of the extension or diminution of its commerce, and as already shown since the coasting regulations were established in 1825, there is no other correct mode of doing so ; then there has been a serious falling off in the foreign and home trade of the country for the years 1854 and 1855. Comparing the year ending 31st December, 1854, with that ending 5th January, same year, which was virtually 1853, there was a decrease in the foreign trade inwards of 143,990 tons, and outwards, 156,199 tons ; and on that with Great Britain and coastways, 168,748 tons, and outwards, 79,529 tons ; total decrease inwards, 312,738 tons, and outwards, 235,782 tons.

The following Tables will show the tonnage of the vessels entering inwards and clearing out of the respective Irish ports, and the shipping registered therein for the years 1854, 1855, and 1856 :—

An Account of the Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of the several Ports of Ireland in the Foreign Trade, and from and to Great Britain and Coastways, distinguishing the British from the Foreign Shipping, for the Years ending 31st December, 1854, and 1855, as given in the Official Returns presented to Parliament: viz.—

Ports.	ENTERING INWARDS YEAR 1854.										CLEARING OUTWARDS YEAR 1854.										ENTERING INWARDS YEAR 1855.										CLEARING OUTWARDS YEAR 1855.										TOTAL OUT- WARDS.																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																									
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These Tables show that for the year 1854, there entered these ports, from Foreign and Colonial ports, vessels of 329,105 tons, of which 117,377 tons were Foreign shipping, and from Great Britain and Coastways, 2,733,544 tons—total inwards 3,062,649 tons. That vessels of 207,276 tons cleared out for Foreign and Colonial ports, of which 86,151 tons were Foreign shipping, and for Great Britain and Coastways 2,098,076 tons—total outwards 2,285,352 tons. That for the year 1855 there entered these ports, from Foreign and Colonial ports, vessels of 288,911 tons, of which 114,366 tons were Foreign shipping, and from Great Britain and Coastways 2,815,782 tons—total inwards 3,104,636 tons. That vessels of 116,451 tons cleared out for Foreign and Colonial ports, of which 30,392 tons were Foreign shipping, and for Great Britain and Coastways 1,986,697 tons—total outwards 2,103,118 tons; being a decrease on the Foreign and Colonial trade inwards of 40,194 tons, and outwards of 90,835 tons, and an increase on the trade with Great Britain and Coastways of 82,238 tons inwards, and a decrease of 41,046 tons outwards—total increase inwards 42,144 tons; total decrease outwards 132,234 tons.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Registered in the several Ports of Ireland under and upwards of Fifty Tons burthen, and distinguishing the Sailing Vessels from Steamers, for the Years ending 31st December, 1854 and 1855.

Ports.	SAILING VESSELS, 1854.						STEAM VESSELS, 1854.						SAILING VESSELS, 1855.						STEAM VESSELS, 1855.						Total Sailing and Steam Registered.	
	Of and under 50 Tons.			Over 50 Tons.			Of and under 50 Tons.			Over 50 Tons.			Of and under 50 Tons.			Over 50 Tons.			Of and under 50 Tons.			Over 50 Tons.				
	Total Sailing.		Tons.	Total Steam.		Tons.	Total Sailing.		Tons.	Total Steam.		Tons.	Total Sailing.		Tons.	Total Steam.		Tons.	Total Sailing.		Tons.	Total Steam.		Tons.		
	Vess.	Tons.		Vess.	Tons.		Vess.	Tons.		Vess.	Tons.		Vess.	Tons.		Vess.	Tons.		Vess.	Tons.		Vess.	Tons.			Vess.
Ballina	2	36	2	36	2	36	2	36	2	36
Belfast	158	5608	324	74553	80161	2	28	15	3532	3560	499	83721	158	5431	302	71783	77264	3	94	18	4786	4890	481	92144
Coleraine	11	271	271	11	271	11	271	11	271	
Cork	154	8714	236	40762	4476	9	285	16	4225	4510	415	48986	170	3994	197	37549	41543	9	285	17	5195	5480	393	470283
Drogheda	2	69	41	4357	4426	5	1787	1787	48	6213	...	3	114	42	4261	4375	5	1787	1787	50	6162
Dublin	304	8935	133	23296	32231	3	119	43	11861	11980	438	44211	...	302	8927	136	20729	29656	6	151	42	1171	11868	486	41524	
Dundalk	6	208	20	1580	1788	1	24	2	844	868	29	2656	...	5	163	19	1466	1629	1	24	3	1249	1273	28	2902	
Galway	11	311	4	1111	1422	15	1422	...	9	246	7	1258	1504	16	1504	
Limerick	60	1765	36	10511	12276	5	1349	1349	51	1580	30	8114	9644	7	2448	2448	38	12090	
Londonderry	10	256	14	4085	4841	3	125	6	2098	2218	38	6559	...	7	196	15	4549	4745	1	49	5	1795	1844	28	6589	
Newry	78	2414	40	4813	7227	1	36	1	208	239	120	7466	...	71	2204	41	4546	6750	2	265	114	7015	
New Ross	2	69	15	5645	5714	17	5714	...	2	69	12	4207	4276	14	4276	
Skibbereen	92	2230	2	102	2332	94	2332	...	88	2138	2	102	2240	90	2240	
Sligo	12	362	22	3805	4167	2	78	1	67	145	37	4312	21	322	24	4238	4560	2	78	78	4312	
Strangford	30	1000	26	3206	4206	56	4206	...	27	894	27	3401	4295	37	4295	
Tralee	11	285	5	515	800	18	800	...	11	285	2	515	800	13	800	
Waterford	62	1602	98	13663	15265	179	21128	...	60	1533	97	14123	15656	177	21917	
Westport	5	139	1	120	259	6	259	...	5	139	1	99	238	6	238	
Wexford	28	977	71	7485	8462	99	8462	...	28	977	67	7130	8107	95	8107	
	1038	30251	1085	199609	229860	21	695	118	18122	32517	9257	262377	1021	29519	1021	198070	217589	22	681	119	35501	36189	21	88	258771	

These Tables show that for the year ending 31st December, 1854, there were registered in the several ports of Ireland, 2,123 Sailing vessels of 229,860 tons; and 134 Steam vessels, of 32,517 tons: total number of Sailing and Steam vessels, 2,257, of 262,377 tons; being an increase on the former year of 3,013 tons. That for the year ending 31st December, 1855, the number of Sailing vessels registered in these ports was 2,042, of 217,889 tons; and 141 Steam vessels, of 36,182 tons: total Sailing and Steam vessels, 2,183, of 253,771 tons; being a decrease on 1854 of 81 Sailing vessels, and 12,271 tons; and an increase of 7 steam vessels, and 3,665 tons: total decrease on the year, 74 vessels, and 8,606 tons.

An Account of the Tonnage of the Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Out of the several Ports of Ireland in the Foreign Trade, and from and to Great Britain and Coastways, distinguishing the British from the Foreign Shipping; and of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels Registered in these Ports, distinguishing Sailing from Steam Vessels, for the Year ending 31st December, 1856.

Ports.	ENTERING INWARDS.										CLEARING OUTWARDS.										REGISTERED SHIPPING, 31st DECEMBER, 1856.																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																						
	Foreign Trade.					British and Coastwise Trade.					British and Coastwise Trade.					Increase Inwards and Outwards on 1855.					Sailing Vessels.					Steam Vessels.					Total Sailing and Steam Vessels.					Incr. on 1855.					Decr. on 1855.																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																		
	British Shpg.		Total Foreign Shpg.			Total Inwards.		British Shpg.			Total Outwards.		British Shpg.			Total Inwards and Outwards on 1855.		Sailing Vessels.			Total Sailing and Steam Vessels.		Incr. on 1855.			Decr. on 1855.			Sailing Vessels.			Total Sailing and Steam Vessels.		Incr. on 1855.			Decr. on 1855.																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																						
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These Tables show that for the year 1856 there entered these ports, from Foreign and Colonial ports, vessels of 369,938 tons, of which 123,259 tons were Foreign shipping; and from Great Britain and Coastways, vessels of 2,818,708 tons: total Inwards, 3,188,646 tons. That vessels of 139,608 tons cleared out for Foreign and Colonial ports, of which 39,318 tons were Foreign shipping; and for Great Britain and Coastways, vessels of 9,128,213 tons: total Outwards, 2,267,816 tons. Compared with 1855, there was an increase Inwards in the Foreign trade of 81,027 tons, and Outwards 23,153 tons; and on that with Great Britain and Coastways, Inwards 141,546 tons: total increase, 248,641 tons. There were registered in these ports, 2,088 sailing vessels of 214,266 tons, and 145 steamers of 35,869 tons; being an increase on 1855 of 16 sailing vessels, but a decrease of 3,003 tons; and an increase of four steam vessels, and a decrease of 313 tons: total decrease, 3,316 tons.

It appears from the foregoing Tables that during the years 1854 and 1855, the commerce of Ireland, as already stated, had decreased considerably, but more particularly in its foreign trade, from what it was in 1853. This was no doubt in some degree occasioned by the war with Russia, which interrupted an extensive import of wheat and Indian corn from the Danube and Black Sea ; and consequently, with the return of peace in 1856, the foreign trade of all the Irish ports again became more active ; and although it was not ratified until much of the shipping season had passed over, there was an increase on the previous year of 81,027 tons inwards, and 23,152 tons outwards, on this branch of commerce. It was deficient, however, compared with 1853, of 103,157 tons inwards, and 223,872 outwards ; while the trade with Great Britain and Coastways inwards was only 83,854 tons deficient, and outwards there was an increase even on that year of 20,608 tons, and on 1855 of 141,546 tons ; while the increase inwards was only 2,926 tons ; which would indicate that many of the vessels taking cargoes from the Irish ports return in ballast, or not at all. These ports have increased in their general trade, with the exception of Drogheda, recently so prosperous, but now showing a serious decrease of 41,869 tons in its trade with Great Britain. The five steamers, however, belonging to this port were remeasured early in January, 1856, agreeable to the New Shipping Act of 1854, which reduced their registered tonnage more than one-fourth, and their average voyages for the year being 66, will account for upwards of 30,000 tons of this deficiency. It would of course affect the other ports in the same ratio, as no doubt this Act has been generally taken advantage of by them. Tralee and Waterford also show a small decrease on the same, although there was an increase on their foreign trade, and the latter port appears to be recovering fast from the depression under which it laboured some few years ago. Cork, in respect to its foreign trade inwards, is evidently in the ascendant, throwing Dublin and even Belfast into the shade, exceeding the former by 19,473 tons, and the latter by 32,641 tons ; but its outward foreign trade is 9,040 tons less than Dublin. The registered shipping of Ireland has been gradually on the decline since 1849, when its tonnage was 269,742 tons. In

1856 it was only 250,455 tons, being a decrease of 19,287 tons on 1849, and 3,316 tons on 1855. Belfast, by the official returns, shows a decrease on the year of 7,541 tons ; whereas the Harbour Commissioners make it only 5,113 tons ; but either is sufficiently serious in such a go-a-head port as Belfast. Limerick is also deficient 1,254 tons ; and Tralee, Galway, Newry, Strangford, Sligo, Drogheda, Coleraine, and New Ross in a lesser degree ; while Cork has an increase of 3,721 tons, Waterford 2,567, and Dundalk 516 tons ; Wexford, Londonderry, Dublin, and Skibbereen, have a small increase. That in Waterford proceeds from four additional steamers of 2,425 tons ; and in Dundalk a new steamer, the Enterprise, has been placed in the trade between that port and Liverpool by the Dundalk and Midland Steampacket Company, lately formed. It is much to the credit of the Cork Steam Shipping Company, that almost all their steamers have been built at home ; and a disposition prevails in the commercial community there to follow so laudable an example in respect to sailing vessels. Mr. James Robinson, a gentleman of great enterprise and skill, has constructed some superior vessels at the waterside dockyard, where he has been recently engaged in building iron steamers of considerable burden on an easy draught of water, suitable to both sea and river navigation, to trade between Newcastle and Paris ; the masts of these vessels are so constructed as to enable them to pass under the numerous bridges on the Seine between Rouen and Paris. At Waterford, also, a great number of the registered vessels have been built there ; while at Belfast, there is scarcely one of the numerous steamers trading with it built, and many of them not even registered, in that port. Messrs. R. Hickson & Co. have established very extensive works on Queen's Island, for the construction of iron steam vessels, where upwards of 300 men are employed, notwithstanding which, the Belfast Steam Packet Companies prefer having their steamers built in the Clyde or at Newcastle, of which Messrs. Hickson justly complain, as they are as fully competent to do the work, having built four or five first-rate iron steamers, principally for Liverpool houses. This is discreditable to Belfast, which prides itself so much in sustaining native manufactures ; and not only it, but the neighbouring ports of Londonderry, Newry, Dundalk, and

Drogheda, should give Messrs. Hickson a preference of building their steamers, if they can do so, on about the same terms as ship-builders in England or Scotland. It is owing to this apathy, or rather to a disposition in the Irish themselves to discourage talent and enterprise at home, and to the want of a more extensive and proper system of banking which has been already discussed, that Ireland is so far behind England and Scotland in ship-building, as in almost every other branch of industry. Is it not a reproach to Ireland that Scotland, with not half its population or natural marine advantages, should own shipping with considerably more than double its amount of tonnage, and seamen in the same proportion, and that the tonnage of the vessels built in 1856 was six times greater there than in Ireland, as appears by the following statement of vessels registered and built in the United Kingdom and British possessions 31st December, 1856?

	Registered Vessels.	Tons.	Crews. Men.	Built in 1856. Vessels.	Tons.
England and Wales	19,778	3,461,031	156,913	901	192,851
Scotland.....	3,354	592,974	29,987	205	44,163
Ireland	2,203	250,455	13,403	44	7,564
Total United Kingdom...	25,335	4,304,460	200,303	1,150	244,578
Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	842	62,496	5,424	32	3,398
British Colonies and Pos- sessions	9,835	945,480	61,846	694	175,620
Total.....	36,012	5,312,436	267,573	1,876	423,596

Of the vessels built in the United Kingdom, there were 921 sailing vessels of 187,005 tons, 33 of which of 11,646 tons were composed of iron; and 229 steam vessels of 57,573 tons, of which 175 of 54,820 tons were of iron. By the official returns of trade for the same year the value of British and Irish manufactured articles exported to foreign countries and the colonies from the ports of the United Kingdom was estimated at the enormous sum of £115,826,948, of which Liverpool contributed £54,220,486, nearly one half of the whole amount, and more than London and the ten other principal ports of the United Kingdom have jointly produced, and the portion direct from the Irish ports amounting only to £282,974! Such an

exposé ought to bring a blush on the cheek of every manufacturing and commercial man in Ireland interested in its foreign trade. Foreigners, from these returns, would conclude that Ireland had no produce suitable for foreign traffic, whereas the amount of Irish manufactured linen cloth and yarn shipped to British ports in 1856, as already shown, amounted to £4,253,000, the greater part of which was either for foreign account or shipped by English houses to foreign markets. The cotton goods also, and particularly from Portlaw, a great portion of which is indirectly sent foreign, and other Irish produce through the same channel, would no doubt, in all, amount to seven millions; while the exports for consumption in Great Britain, which chiefly consisted of the necessaries of life, and considering the high prices these ruled at during the year, must have amounted to at least twenty millions. The official returns only give a portion of these exports—say 273,821 oxen and cows, 18,704 calves, 602,217 sheep, 299,638 swine, 196,763 quarters of wheat and flour, 1,904,855 quarters of oats and oatmeal, and 2,114,464 gallons of whiskey. There is no account of the butter, bacon, hams, beef, pork, eggs, stout, and numerous other articles of Irish produce exported to Great Britain, but some estimate may be made of their great value when Cork alone in 1856 shipped 425,094 firkins of butter, which was worth one million and a half of money, and that from Belfast was valued at £563,708. The export of this commodity from Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Newry, Derry, and the other ports, would amount to about a like sum, so that the value of this export alone could not be less than four millions, and the total amount of exports for the year twenty-seven millions! which would leave an increase of nearly ten millions on the estimated amount of exports from Ireland made by the railway commissioners in 1835, and shows the golden harvests the landed proprietors have been reaping for the last four or five years. The Irish ports in general derived considerable benefit from this prosperity, and these increased exports helped particularly to swell the outward tonnage to Great Britain. Belfast, as already shown, aimed at rivalling Liverpool in its commercial course, taking as data its inward tonnage of 1847 compared with that of Liverpool in 1812, and during a period of 7 years, it more than sustained a superiority; but from the

gigantic strides Liverpool has made since 1823, when steam began to develop its immense capabilities for nautical purposes, it can scarcely be expected that Belfast, with all its admitted enterprise, will be able to keep pace with it, on the scale defined, much longer. The comparative inward tonnage, however, of these ports is continued as follows :—

Liverpool.		Belfast.		Liverpool.		Belfast.	
Years.	Tonnage.	Years.	Tonnage.	Years.	Tonnage.	Years.	Tonnage.
1819	867,318	1854	790,096	1821	839,048	1856	772,127
1820	805,033	1855	744,364	1822	892,902	1857	796,968

The Belfast tonnage, which is taken from the Harbour commissioners' accounts, is less than the official returns make it, and their late secretary, Mr. Edmund Getty, stated that if it had not been for the operation of the new shipping registration act, the Belfast tonnage of 1856 would have exceeded that of Liverpool in 1821. Belfast has sustained in the recent death of this talented and comprehensive gentleman an irreparable loss ; connected with its commerce from his childhood, he was early aware of the injurious effects the shallow and intricate navigation of the harbour had on its trade, and the necessity that existed for extended accommodation. To effect this object, he exerted himself with energy and zeal, and he had the satisfaction of seeing completed those vast improvements which have made Belfast a first-rate harbour. The inward tonnage of Belfast in 1857 exceeds that of any former year, and shows an increase on 1854 of 6,872 tons, and on 1856 of 24,841 tons, of which 10,180 tons were in the foreign trade ; still, the amount of the imports and exports is less in the latter than in the former year, which is, probably, owing to many articles having with the peace declined in price. The estimated value of the exports for 1856 was £9,613,208, and of the imports £7,926,818 ; for 1857 the exports were £8,646,513, and the imports £7,432,002. The value of the exports for the two years exceeding the imports £2,900,901. In the event of the commerce of this port increasing in the same ratio as Liverpool, the Harbour commissioners, under their last act, are authorised to construct docks on an extensive scale, which would afford ample accommodation to meet it. Cork, so admirably circumstanced for trade, is making very marked progressive demonstra-

tions; and Waterford is assuming a more healthy commercial appearance, which will be still further perceptible when it is made available as a harbour of refuge. Limerick, too, notwithstanding the decrease in its registered tonnage in 1856, has been for the last few years increasing rapidly in commercial importance, and it would be surprising indeed if it did not, situated as it is on one of the finest rivers in the universe, and surrounded with a country abounding with unexplored treasure, and directly opposite the continent of America. All its energies should now be directed to establish a commercial intercourse with it, which must ultimately prove a source of great prosperity not only to Limerick, but to those extensive districts in connexion with it, which must one day become the arena of immense manufacturing operations. The submarine and magnetic cable, which was to unite Ireland at Valentia to America, was not, however, calculated to promote the trade and intercourse of the western ports with the United States. One of the many advantages they possess is their proximity thereto, which would enable them, if they had steam communication with America, to convey intelligence back and forward 36 hours sooner than it can now be done by Liverpool; but the telegrams, by means of the cable, will be in London, Liverpool, and New York respectively in a few minutes after they reach Valentia. Still, the inhabitants of these ports felt as much disappointed at the failure of this project as the commercial community at Liverpool or New York could possibly have been. The Irish ports, although the march of some is slow, are all more or less increasing in trade; a spirit of emulation and improvement is everywhere perceptible. The harbours are all vastly improved, and new bills and plans are in progress in several to extend and improve them still more. Even during the disastrous infliction of famine and disease, their commerce, with a few exceptions, continued its onward march. Ireland, which was of course paralyzed by these dread events, and by misgovernment, and a cold and hesitating humanity, is now slowly recovering from its morbid inanity, and begins to breathe freely again. There is much in the present position of the country for gratulation. Its commerce again increasing, its manufactures extending and prosperous, crime diminishing—the number of prisoners confined in all the gaols on the 1st January, 1856, was only

3,558, of whom 117 were debtors, against 10,967 in 1850; thus, while crime continued to decrease in Ireland, in England it increased in an inverse ratio, and as it progressed became more complex and atrocious in its character. Education, both literary and industrial, is extending; railways progressing, the public revenue increasing, the monetary circulation in a sound and healthy state; but an extension, and a better system of banking absolutely necessary to stimulate commercial and manufacturing enterprise. Agriculture, although more limited, was remunerative in the extreme for the last four years. The poor-rates are so reduced as to be no longer burdensome, and the workhouses are almost empty. All these advantages are calculated to restore confidence, and to inspire the Irish people with renovated hope that the dark days of Ireland's calamity are passed, and a happier and more prosperous era approaching. Many were, therefore, induced for the last two years to cling to fatherland, notwithstanding the endearing ties and friendly relations which so strongly urged them to cross the Western main. It is now stated, that the tide of emigration is not only on the turn, but is wafting back again to the old country some of those who had recently left it for the United States; the number, however, will be small, as long as the Irish landlords adhere to ejectments and other depopulating experiments, and will probably be confined to those whom, for the benefit of their health, like that ever-honest and patriotic Irishman Mr. Richard O'Gorman, induced him reluctantly to leave the States, and seek the more genial atmosphere of his native land. An evil scarcely less calamitous to the prosperity of Ireland than the famine, was the tenacity with which Irishmen clung to the idea that English capitalists would be induced to embark their money in manufacturing and other pursuits in Ireland, that would be beneficial to it, and for half a century remained in this vain hope, and criminally neglected to place reliance on their own exertions, or to form a union of interests among Irishmen that would develop those immense natural resources within their reach, with which Providence had so bountifully enriched their native land. In this concluding paragraph, the propriety of establishing manufactures throughout the length and breadth of the land, and of forming direct communications to trade with foreign countries, cannot be too strongly

urged. Liverpool derives much of its importance from its being the intermediate port of shipment for the manufactured articles of Belfast, and the other Irish ports, destined for the United States and South America. It is an axiom that cannot be controverted, that a country to be great in manufactures must be possessed of an extensive population. Ireland had that great advantage between the years of 1841 and 1846, but it was then called a surplus population, and it could not be otherwise than a dead weight on the resources of the country, when neither the government, the landlords, or capitalists could be induced to direct the physical energies of the people anxious for employment in manufacturing or other industrial pursuits. Although the country, from its diminished population, is certainly not now so well circumstanced as it was then for manufacturing purposes, still, habits of industry are daily gaining ground, and a spirit of exertion and enterprise is manifesting itself among all classes of the community, and the rising generation is active and intelligent, and has the advantage of education, which was denied its predecessors. An equal dispensation of civil rights cannot long be withheld from a people determined to persevere in the onward march of improvement, and a brighter dawn appears to be shedding its influence on Ireland ; which only requires unanimity and exertion among Irishmen to make it what the poetical inspiration of Erin's modern bard in an ecstatic moment so fondly anticipated :

" The nations are falling, but thou art still young ;
Thy sun is just rising, when others are set ;
And though slavery's cloud o'er thy morning has hung,
The full noon of freedom shall beam on thee yet."

ERRATA.

In a work which embraces some millions of figures, it is not surprising, notwithstanding the care taken to correct the press, that some typical errors should have been overlooked.

In page 52, for the population of 1831, read 7,767,401, not 7,967,401.

„ 60, emigrants to British America in 1848, read 22,375, not 23,375; and in 1849, read 30,724, not 27,333.

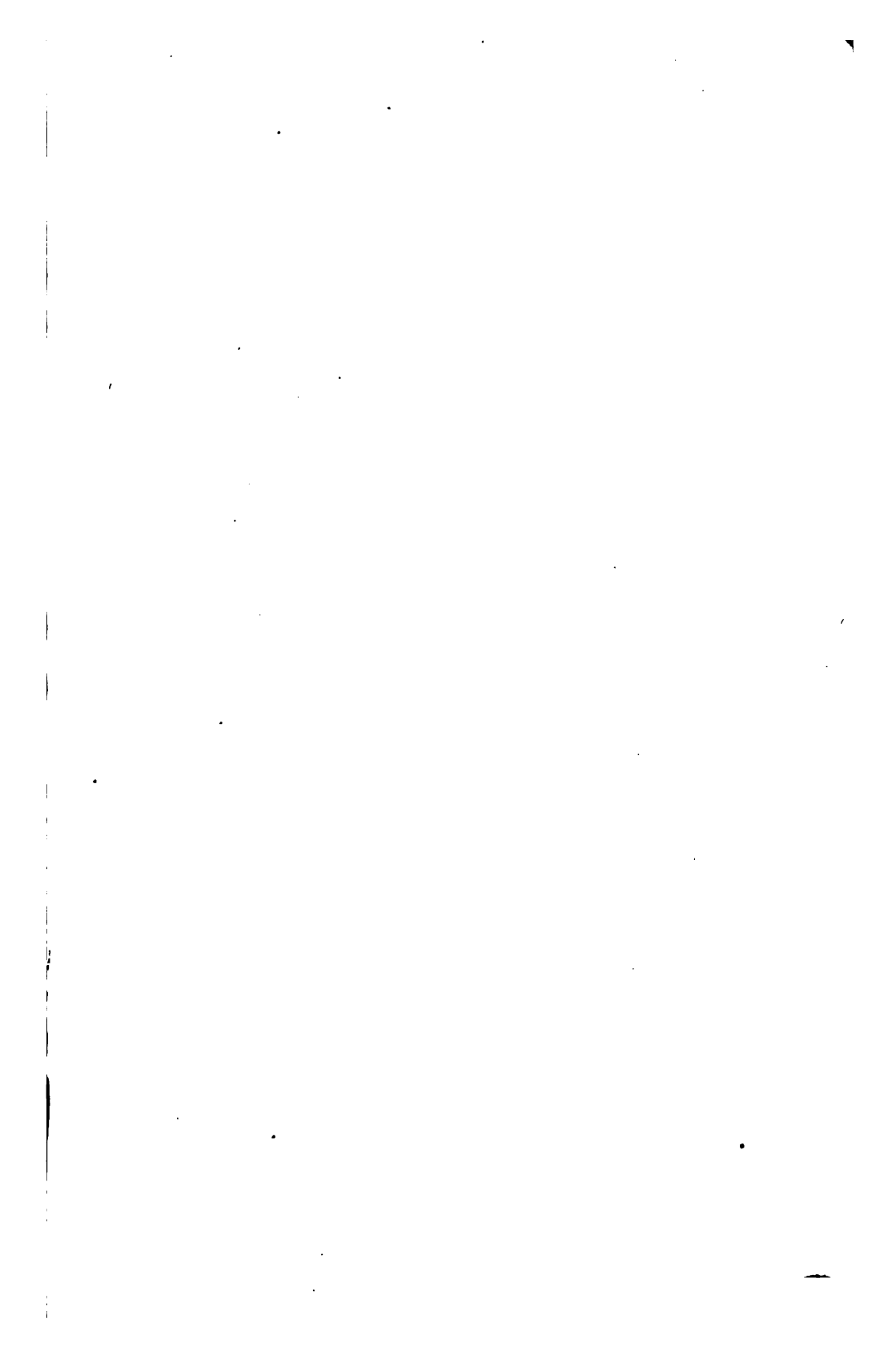
„ 80, the number of acres of flax cultivated in 1853, read 174,579, not 175,495; and for increase on ditto, read 37,571, not 38,487; and for value of flax exported in 1852, read £392,500, not £292,500.

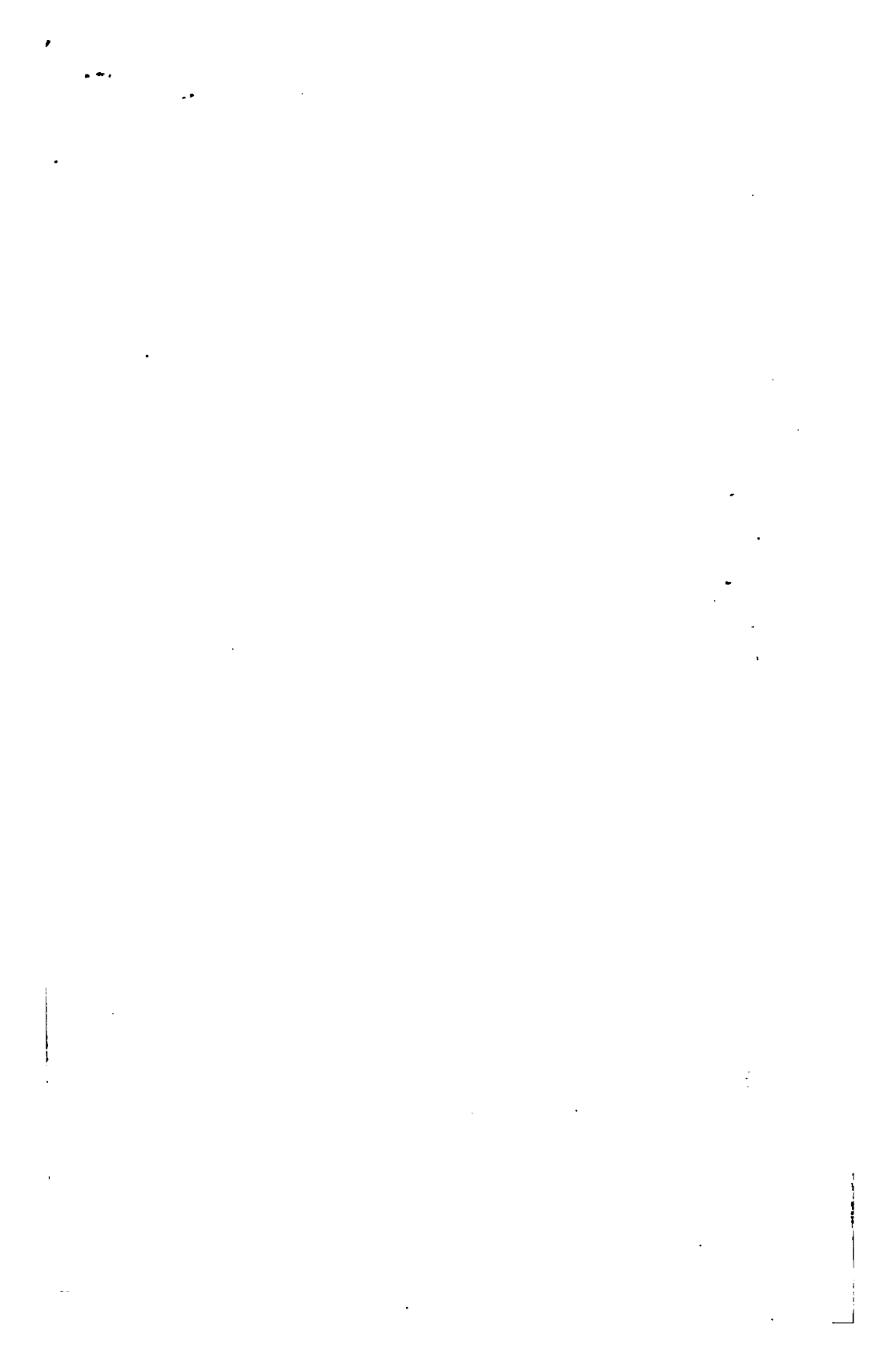
„ 99, the number of persons employed in the Customs in England and Wales in 1849, read 6,840, not 6,480.

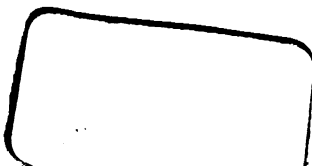
„ 99, their average salaries, read £83 7s. 4d., not £84 18s. 3d.; and in Scotland, read £56 6s. 3d., not £55 8s. 1d.

„ 160, number relieved in the workhouses in 1848, read 2,043,505, not 2,013,505; and in 1849, read 932,284, not 732,284.

„ 366, united salaries of persons employed in the Customs at Belfast, in 1849, read £8,242 15s. 2d., not £9,242 15s. 2d.







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